Indirect Contact with Leaders: Context, Process and Social Influence

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Abstract

This thesis examines the influence that leaders can have on follower identification and engagement through the medium of indirect contact. Drawing upon a theoretical integration of the Social Identity Theory of Leadership and Intergroup Contact Theory, I tested whether and how leaders, through on-line, text-based and imagined forms of contact, can promote a shared identity and instil greater organizational identification. In Chapter 3, four experiments examined the impact of indirect contact on organizational identification by observing a video message of a leader either alone, or in the presence of other followers. In Chapter 4, three experiments tested whether leaders who communicated through emails, using either individualistic or collectivistic rhetoric, elicited different levels of organizational identification and turnover intention. Finally, in Chapter 5, I investigated whether or not imagined contact can be used as a pre-contact tool within the organizational context to enhance organizational identification via an imagined interaction with the leader, with or without other followers present. Here, additional variables such as interactional justice and trust were examined. Overall, the findings from these ten experiments did not reveal clear support for the tested hypotheses; however, a review of findings enabled the development of a new theoretical approach. Specifically, in Chapter 6, I propose that followers have a need for leader distinctiveness under certain conditions, and that under such conditions attempts to elicit greater closeness between leaders and followers will backfire. Predictions derived from this theory are discussed.

Table of Contents

List of Figures and Tables

Declaration

The work in this thesis is based on research carried out at the Department of Psychology, England. No part of this thesis has been submitted elsewhere for any other degree or qualification and it is all my own work unless referenced to the contrary in the text.

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I owe a debt (economic and..) of gratitude to my family (and my puppies), who always believed in me, even when I did not at all. I hope this work pays off (metaphorically and literally speaking).

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Dedicated to

My brother Marko, my biggest inspiration.

Chapter 1

Introduction and Overview

From Martin Luther King's well known "I have a dream" speech to Obama's popular slogan "Yes we can", the importance of leaders' rhetoric has shaped the world we live in. Indeed, it is not only political leaders who are known for such speeches, but business leaders, such as Steve Jobs (Apple Inc.) and Elon Musk (Tesla Inc.) are well-known for motivational speeches to their employees. Leaders in all domains have in common the ability to shape followers' endorsement and engagement through carefully crafted rhetoric. Such strong messages and motivational speeches play an important role in influencing followers. Research on leader communication has received a great deal of attention over the years (Coombs & Holladay, 2011). Previous research has focused on leader rhetoric through the use of alliteration or metaphors (Willner, 1985), tone of the voice (Schweitzer, 1984), hand gestures (Bull, 1986) eye contact (Atkinson, 1984) or the content of the message (Berson, Halevy, Shamir, & Erez, 2015; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Over last couple of years, some researchers have focused on *charisma* as leader's 'gift' in capturing followers' attention and endorsement (Den Hartog & Verburg, 1997; Shamir et al., 1993). Leaders' ability to promote their vision as an idealized future and promote shared values has been recognized as a key starting point for leaders to inspire their followers. Charismatic leaders are often able to frame their rhetoric in ways that energize the listeners. For example, Steve Jobs introduced his computer system plan in universities as "revolutionizing the higher educational system", instead of simply "introducing computers to schools" (Awamleh, Gardner, & Gardner, 1999).

Over the years, philosophers, psychologists and other scholars have tried to define the essence of leadership, given the importance of the leader as an individual who is able to inspire a significant group of people. For example, one of the first definitions comes from *The Republic* (B.C. 381) by the Greek philosopher Plato. He suggests that the leader

possess certain skills and should be able to inspire others to "do good," which is possible through the art of rhetoric and knowledge. Moreover, Plato's idea of leadership allows the possibility for those skills, based on scientific knowledge, to be learned. Other scholars, instead, have advanced the idea that leadership skills are immutable and innate. In fact, those who have focused on this line of thought have proposed that the leader possess certain personality traits that are innate such as intelligence or dominance which are essential in leadership practice (Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009; Lord, de Vader, & Alliger, 1986). Other researchers suggested the importance of contextual factors that influence and shape leadership practice (e.g., see *The Stanford Prison Experiment*, Haney, Banks, & Zimbardo, 1973). In other words, a leader can arise from a certain situation independent of their specific personality traits.

Theories of leadership will be discussed in detail in Chapter 2; however, here it is important to note that the subject of leadership has received most attention as an *individual characteristic*, while more recently the field of Social Psychology has considered an alternative approach that allows the definition and study of leadership in terms of *group processes*. In particular, leadership as a group process is aptly captured in the *Social Identity Theory of Leadership*.

The Social Identity Theory of Leadership (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003) considers leadership as an element of, and within, a bigger social system; and specifically as a direct result from the interaction between leaders and followers (i.e., not only focusing on the leader or the situation). This approach focuses on the idea of collective identity where both leaders and followers co-exist in a group; leadership is a direct result of this intergroup exchange (Hogg, 2001). One of the main goals of a leader is to inspire followers to share this collective identity, and to internalize group goals as their own (Chemers, 2008). An example of how leaders can invoke concepts of social identity to elicit influence is illustrated by the following example. In 2018, Elon Musk (CEO of Tesla, the automotive

company and SPACE X, aerospace company) sent an email to his 37 thousand employees suggesting how to improve communication and obtain better productivity. The following is an abstract from the whole email which can be found online:

> "[..] *We* are going to find a way or make a way to get there. *Our* car needs to be designed and built with such accuracy and precision [..]. A major source of issues is poor communication between departments. The way to solve this is to allow free flow of information between all levels. If, in order to get something done between depts, an individual contributor has to talk to their manager, who talks to a director, who talks to a VP (Vice President), who talks to another VP, who talks to a director, who talks to a manager, who talks to someone doing the actual work, then super dumb things will happen. It must be ok for people to talk directly and just make the right thing happen*."*

Here Musk not only describes a typical organizational scenario, where communication can be bounded to different departments, he also adopts a rhetorical style that focuses on the social identity principles. He focuses on collectivistic rhetoric and emphasizes that the car is "ours" not only "his". In this way, he can promote this shared identity and instil the sense of community which leads to the willingness to work toward the common goal.

In this example, it is clear that leader communication is an important part of the organizational performance. As Musk highlights, poor communication is the root of many issues. Therefore, understanding organizational communication and providing leaders with best means is critical. Burke (1969) suggests that communication within organizations can be explained through identification. Burke writes (1969, p. 22): "identification is necessary to compensate for estrangement in the division of labor". Identifying with the organization a person works for means sharing the common identity. Identifying with the organization is essential not only to feel less estranged but also because sharing a similar identity and goals result in greater commitment and lower

intentions to leave the company. Sharing a social identity with the organization is not only useful for the company but also for the individual. Striving for a positive social identity is one of human basic elements of self-esteem and self-enhancement (Turner & Oakes, 1986). In other words, the person who identifies with the organization is more likely to work harder and stay committed because the organization is able to satisfy the need for positive social identity (e.g., "I am Tesla - I work for Tesla"; "Tesla is prestigious – I am prestigious"). As this identification increases, a subsequent "overlap" between individuals or an individual and group level arises and, this is essential for the "working together toward the same goal" attitude. Moreover, Cheney (1983) suggests that those who identify strongly with the organization will be also more open to persuasive language from leaders.

The idea that leaders have the power to influence followers is not new; however, the recognition of the importance of eliciting social identification creates new insights. One way of promoting organizational identification is through communication. Cheney (1983) explains that one way of increasing identification is when enhancing similarities (e.g., "I am like you. I have the same interests as you" p. 92). Again, citing Burke's work, he suggests that only "[…] the major power of identification derives from situations in which it goes unnoticed. My prime example is the word 'we', as when the statement that 'we' are at war includes under the same head soldiers who are getting killed and speculators who hope to make a killing in war stocks" (Burke, 1972, p. 28).

One of the aims of the present thesis is to explore ways to reduce the social distance between leaders and followers. As such, it is the language the leader uses that is critical in promoting identification through communication. Promoting collectiveness has been found to be effective in research on political election success and perceived leader authenticity (Steffens & Haslam, 2013; Steffens, Mols, Haslam, & Okimoto, 2016). When using the collective pronoun "we", political leaders were more likely to win the election,

when compared to those who promoted the individualistic rhetoric (i.e., "I"). Additionally, leaders who championed collective interests were perceived as being more authentic.

Analysis of leader communication is important because it is correlated with other organizational variables such as commitment or turnover and trust (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2002, 2007). These variables are important not only in terms of psychological process but also, economically; for example, turnover can cost companies 100% or 150% of worker's annual salary (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2002). Trust, turnover and other variables will be included in the present thesis and it will be tested whether differential leader's communicative style could affect follower's attitudes on those specific scales.

How then to make leader communications maximally effective at enhancing organizational identification? Here I draw upon Intergroup Contact Theory (Allport, 1954; Pettigrew, 1998) to understand the social type of contact such as happens between a leader and followers. Originally the contact hypothesis posits how greater intergroup contact can reduce bias and increase liking toward the outgroup (Allport, 1954). With his traditional work, Allport (1954) has suggested four optimal conditions for intergroup contact (i.e., equal status, common goals, intergroup cooperation and support for authorities). More recent approaches from contact researchers propose extended, vicarious and imagined types of contact which constitute the indirect forms of contact. These types of contact represent respectively the knowledge (extended), observation (vicarious) and imagination (imagined) forms of contact which have similar positive effects as direct contact (Dovidio, Eller, & Hewston, 2011).

The above example (Elon Musk's email) constitutes an example of 'indirect contact' wherein a leader communicates with their followers through alternative means to the standard face-to-face meeting. Indirect contact is a technique sometimes used by psychologists to improve attitudes toward the outgroup that are veiled with preconceptions especially when direct contact is limited or not possible (Crisp & Turner, 2012; Dovidio,

Eller, & Hewstone, 2011; Vezzali, Hewstone, Capozza, Giovannini, & Wölfer, 2014). Adopting a social psychology lens, this thesis will investigate the concept of indirect contact as a means of communication available to leaders.

Intergroup contact theory has focused mostly on reducing the social distance between ingroups and outgroups and while direct contact has been described as usually the most successful approach, it is necessary to keep in mind that this type of contact is not always possible. Especially in organizations where the most common way of communication is virtual (e.g., emails). Given the organizational structure and the growing use of modern technologies which permits distant communication, it seems necessary to explore further how leader communication has evolved within this modern environment.

Given the importance and sometimes divergent ideas of leader distance as influencing variable in leadership, I propose in the present thesis alternative ways of communication that can be useful to Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) and other leaders who are bounded by distance. In particular, drawing on the literature on intergroup processes, and the available evidence of leader influence through rhetoric, this research will explore what alternatives to direct contact are available to leaders to influence followers. Adopting alternative approaches to communication is becoming increasingly feasible due to the growing development of technologies which permits not only better and easier communication among people but also has allowed to overcome the barriers of time and space to meet and collaborate.

In order to address the research questions, this thesis will examine the way leader communication that relies on indirect contact can promote positive organizational outcomes such as organizational identification and lower turnover. I will begin by outlining the current research and theory on leadership and intergroup processes in Chapter 2. Within the literature review, I will describe the theoretical framework this thesis adopts, justifying the choice for the social identity approach among other leadership

theories. This thesis will, draw on the above-mentioned theories and, propose a novel approach that allows the integration of leadership and contact theories. I will then propose hypotheses that are tested in ten experiments.

The literature review will be followed by experimental chapters (Chapter 3, 4, and 5) which describe in detail the methodology and results of different experiments. In Chapter 3, I focus on vicarious contact where I asked participants to observe a video with a leader. This chapter describes four experiments that test how a video message from the leader observed either alone or with other employees has an effect on followers' attitudes toward the organization.

In Chapter 4, I changed the methodology to examine a different approach involving leader communication. In three experiments I tested how the use of e-mail communication can lead to positive organizational outcomes and positive evaluation of the leader (i.e., trust and authenticity). Specifically, I explored how the use of collective vs. individualistic rhetoric can have differential effects on followers' attitudes.

Chapter 5 focused on imagined contact, adapting a paradigm developed by Meleady and Crisp (2017). In this chapter, I report studies investigating the extent to which imagined contact can serve as an alternative to direct contact and can be useful as a pre-contact tool with the leader. As in previous experiments, participants were asked to imagine meeting the leader alone or in collective, as a group.

Lastly, in Chapter 6, I summarize the findings from the present thesis, forge links with the current literature and provide further lines for an inquiry in understanding when, how and why, leader rhetoric affects followers' perceptions and attitudes toward the organization and leader. Moreover, I draw on some unexpected results to advance a new theory called the *Leadership Distinctiveness Theory*. This theory posits how, when and why followers may prefer to keep their boundaries with the leader who promotes collective identities, but instead, prefer a distinct and distant leader.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Abstract

This chapter focuses on the literature that underlies the research questions examined in this doctoral thesis. Here theories on leadership and intergroup contact are described and integrated. Specifically, in this chapter Social Identity Theory and related leadership theories will be outlined in order to understand the group processes underlying leaders' social influence. The concept of organizational identification will be defined in the context of social identity theory and how it is important for leader's effectiveness. Finally, Intergroup Contact Theory will be invoked to provide an alternative approach to the classic leader-follower direct interaction.

The Nature of Leadership

Many theories have been developed over the years – in a range of disciplines – to help us understand the nature of leadership. In what follows the development of research on leadership is described through three different phases. Understanding leadership through its different phases allows an understanding of how a definition focused on the individual has evolved to take group processes into account; that is, how leadership can be a product of followers' coexistence (Hogg, 2001).

First phase

The starting point of leadership scholarship dates back to ancient Greece, with Plato (380 B.C.) who described the appropriate ways of leading in his manuscript *Republic*. The idea that leaders have to possess certain qualities dates also back to the work of Thomas Carlyle (1841) to whom the so called *Great Man Theory* is usually attributed (see Spector, 2016). This theory focuses on defining traits of a great leader. In fact, Cowley (1931), one of main trait theorists, suggests: "the approach to the study of leadership has usually been and perhaps must always be through the study of traits" (p.144). The study of traits was also brought further by Galton (1889) who wrote in *Hereditary Genius* that leaders possess certain traits that are unique, innate and immutable (for a review of trait leadership research see Zaccaro, 2007). However, critiques to trait theorists led to research for a more agentic leader and analysis of leader behaviours (Lord et al., 1986). Stogdill (1948) for example, criticized the trait theory, suggesting that leadership should be considered not only through the characteristics of the individual but also through situational variables. In fact, he identified some of the traits and behaviours that define a leader such as intelligence, responsibility, knowledge, status and, suggested that a leader might be effective in a certain situation but not in a different one. However, Zaccaro (2007) points out that even Stogdill did focus mostly on individual differences as predictors of leader success even when criticizing the existing trait theory.

Second phase

What followed in the 1960's was a focus on personality tests that could identify, with more rigorous scientific approaches, the traits that describe great leaders (Mullen, Salas, & Driskell, 1989). However, soon the shift in attention to other theories allowed the definition of the leader to vary by specific *situations*. It was believed that to be a leader it was not only necessary to have certain characteristics, but leaders could arise in certain situations as well. A well-known example of a more generic situational approach is the *Stanford Prison Experiment* (Haney et al., 1973). In leadership research, the situational perspective (Sheriff, 1966), contingency model (Fiedler, 1967) or transactional and transformational models (Wilpert, 1995) are the main approaches that characterise this phase. These theories tried to explain leaders' behaviour in terms of both individual and situational variables and necessary attributes to have as a leader (e.g., being intelligent, charismatic, talkative, etc.). With contingency theories researchers suggested that a different leadership style depends on different contexts. In particular, leaders will be effective when their leadership style is suitable to the particular situation. Fiedler's *least preferred co-worker theory* has received much attention and analysis in the last two decades. This theory proposes that leaders are most effective when they are in certain situations. In particular, a leader's success can be determined through the Least Preferred Co-worker inventory (LPC). When the leader has a low LPC (i.e., s/he is task oriented), s/he is also more productive when other variables are satisfied (e.g., good relationships, good structure of the task and high power). In the opposite case, when leader scores high LPC then s/he is relationship oriented and his/her success is dependent upon intermediate influence, or as Fiedler defines it "intermediate favourableness" (Fiedler, 1964).

Third phase

With the third phase, the focus shifted to a different type of leader that possessed "something special", identified by Weber (1947) as *charisma*. In particular, charismatic

leadership and transformational leadership theories focus on the leader-follower relationship (Bass 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993). Charismatic leadership focuses on inspirational rhetoric, creating an idealized vision with a particular focus on empowering followers to achieve higher goals. Although charismatic and transformational leadership can be included in the same category, Bass and Avolio (1993) suggest that charisma is desirable, but not a necessary trait for transformational leadership. Transformational leaders, in fact, are task-oriented and eager to change the present situation with their vision. Charismatic leadership theory is based on the idea that leaders own this personality trait which gives them that something special when inspiring followers with persuasive and eloquent rhetoric.

Similarly, Lord, Foti, and De Vader (1984) introduced *Leadership Categorization Theory* which describes leadership as something that is perceived of the leader from the followers. In particular, followers have pre-defined ideas of leadership or stereotypes of this concept, which leaders need to comply in order to be evaluated as successful. For example, leaders are expected to have certain traits and behaviours such as, for example, intelligence. Lord et al. (1984)'s main contribution is the novel introduction of the definition of leadership from followers' perspective and through the introduction of social categorization in the process of leadership which was further advanced in the *Social Identity Theory of Leadership*. However, Lord's theory presented a definition of the leader that was focused on situationally-specific stereotypes. Therefore, as previous theories maintained, the leader is able to gain support only in a particular situation. For example, a basketball player can emerge as a leader in the context of a basketball game, while in other contexts his stereotypical traits (i.e., height and speed) might be useless to the situation and, in turn, the follower's perception of his/her leadership skills.

A renowned transactional leadership theory, on the other hand, that focuses on a dyadic relationship between leader and follower, is the *Leader-Member Exchange Theory*

(LMX, Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). This theory focuses on the perceived *quality of exchange* in the dyadic relationship leader-follower. The LMX theory asserts that differential relationship with the leader defines effectiveness of the leader himself/herself. In particular, greater quality of the relationship depends on the interactional process both between leader and followers. Moreover, previous research suggests how LMX is related to other organizational outcomes such as trust, empowerment, performance and organizational citizenship behaviour (see meta-analysis, Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee, & Epitropaki, 2016). However, the main critique to this theory is that leadership should not only be considered through a dyadic level of analysis but as a group process that arises from interactions with followers (Hogg, 2005).

A recent large-scale longitudinal study of organizational behaviour and leadership (The Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness Research Program: GLOBE; House, Javidan, & Dorfman, 2001) unified 38 countries and 54 researchers to provide the most unified definition of leadership to date as: "the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members" (House, Javidan & Dorfman, 2001, p. 494). Key to this definition is the notion that leadership does not only focuses on the leader but, more on the followers as well. Thus, the process of leadership is a *group process* and it entails both *influence* and cooperation toward *common goals*. This idea of group processes as part of leadership processes is vital to the central theory examined in this thesis: The *Social Identity Theory of Leadership* (SITL) (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Previous theories lacked an explanation of the social psychological processes that underlie how leaders can influence followers. In particular, SITL provides a theoretical framework that considers leadership as a "relationship between leaders and followers within a social group" (as reported by Reicher et al., 2005 from Sherif, 1962, p. 17). Moreover, Reicher

et al. (2005) note that actually when describing leaders there is always a referential social group (i.e., a political party, the nation, or organization, etc.).

Hogg (2001) persuasively argues that leadership should be considered as an intergroup process where leaders and followers coexist and are interdependent as two groups that unite under a superordinate group; one that is created through socio-cognitive processes. Therefore, leadership can be considered as a group process whereby inclusion, persuasion, self-categorization and other processes can be easily applied – all specified by Social Identity Theory (SIT; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). In the present research what comes from the social identity definition of leadership will constitute the main definition reference through this thesis.

Social Identity Theory

Before discussing the Social Identity Theory of Leadership, it is important to understand why people form social groups where leaders can perform as main actors. It is important to understand how social groups can constitute the main referent point to its members and what or who keeps the individuals together within the social arena.

Social Identity Theory (SIT) is an important theoretical approach that is able to address these questions and set the grounding elements for leadership understanding. The SIT integrates in fact different sub-theories (i.e., social, cognitive, motivational and socio-interactive) that enables researchers to explain how people define their identity within social and group contexts (Hogg & Abrams, 1988; Hogg, Abrams, Otten, & Hinkle, 2004; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). In particular these theories include the social identity theory (Hogg & Abrams, 1988; Turner, Oakes, Haslam, & Mcgarty, 1994), the self-categorization theory (Turner, 1985; Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher & Wetherell, 1987) and distinctiveness theory (e.g., Brewer, 1991; Sedikides & Brewer, 2001). Widely used by social psychologists, SIT was firstly introduced by organizational psychologists, Ashforth and Mael in 1989. These researchers proposed different theoretical aspects such

as group prototypicality, self-categorization, contextual salience and depersonalization processes (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). In the present chapter, these theoretical aspects will be explained through the Social Identity Theory approach because this theoretical framework justifies the idea of intergroup leadership.

One of key elements that SIT describes for the group processes theory is the group membership. Group membership is necessary in order to define the self. People define themselves in terms of personal identity, "I" as individuals but also, as collective identity or group membership, "we" referring to the group they belong. This shift from one identity to another can be possible through the process of *depersonalization* depending on which social category becomes salient (Turner, 1981). SIT proposes that when people define themselves as a group and create memberships, they tend to establish a *positive distinctiveness* in order to distinguish themselves from other groups. This evaluation derives from the concept of social comparison: people compare themselves as part of the ingroup (i.e., the group the person belongs to) compared to the outgroup (i.e., the group the person does not belong to). If the comparison with the outgroup is unsatisfactory, members of the ingroup seek to confirm the ingroup's positive and distinctive image compared to the outgroup. In fact, when this happens, people don't act on the situation that led to this unsatisfactory comparison, but they seek for alternative positive attributes of the ingroup, focus on different dimensions of comparison, or compare to another outgroup (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). As a consequence, this ingroup-outgroup comparison can lead to competition over prestige, power and status.

In general, researchers suggest that people have a tendency to maintain and seek a positive and distinctive social identity. However, when the self is threatened, people adopt strategies to overcome this situation. SIT explains these processes suggesting concepts as perceived *permeability* of group boundaries and the perceived *security* of intergroup relations. Permeability refers to the extent to which people believe that they can or cannot

change membership, while the perceived security refers to which extent do people consider their groups stable and legitimate. People adopt different strategies such as competition or social creativity whether they perceive there is secure and permeable boundaries versus insecure and impermeable conditions between groups. In particular, groups are more likely to adopt the strategy of competition when the outgroups are instable and impermeable while in the opposite case, they might adopt social creativity. Belonging to a specific group or category is explained not only by the different strategies people adopt but also by the cognitive schemas explained through the self-categorization theory (SCT).

Self-categorization theory

Self-categorization theory is the extension of the Social Identity Theory. This theory makes further assumptions on the cognitive, motivational processes and depersonalization of the self. This theory explains *when* the self categorizes in terms of membership of one specific social category (i.e., ingroup; Hogg & Terry, 2000), and *which* category will be used to define itself in a specific context. According to this theory, the self-concept is *flexible* and depending on the salience hypothesis. In particular, this hypothesis is defined by three different processes: a) accessibility of a social category, b) comparative fit of social stimuli, and c) normative fit.

First, *accessibility* to the social group varies on the accessibility of a particular category. A category can be highly accessible when often used (chronic accessibility) or can be activated by the situation (situational accessibility). The crucial factor of accessibility is the prior identification with or sense of belonging to the particular group (Ellemers, Spears, & Doosje, 1997; Mael & Ashforth, 1992a).

Second, b) the comparative fit explains how people compare themselves to the members of the ingroup or outgroup. Individuals minimize the differences with other

members of the ingroup, while when comparing with the outgroup, they maximize the perceived differences (Turner, 1985).

Third, c) normative fit, refers to the extent to which individuals refer to specific categories with expected social similarities (i.e., normative) and to which extent they differ between categories (Haslam & Turner, 1992).

Another cognitive process that is very important in understanding organizational behaviour is self-categorization. People self-categorize in terms of categories, (e.g., "I am Microsoft") because being part of a social group is positively related to self-esteem and self-enhancement. When people categorize themselves in terms of a specific group they belong to, they also act according to processes such as similarity, trust, shared information, cooperation and mutual influence (e.g., Mcgarty, Haslam, Hutchinson, & Turner, 1994; Platow, McClintock, & Liebrand, 1990; Tyler & Blader, 2000). Therefore, when people share a social identity, they are more likely to perceive similarities within the group they are part of and therefore act in terms of common goals.

Aligned to the process of self-categorization is the process of depersonalization. According to this process as a result of self-categorization the self is no longer unique and defined by individual norms but instead by the norms of the group. Depersonalization leads to the approximation of the self to the prototype of the group, which constitutes a set of attitudes and behaviours that are part of the category and group the self is now part of.

Ingroup prototype

The ingroup prototype is the sum of features, ingroup norms and attributes that are abstracted from the members of the group (Turner, 1985). This cognitive representation leads to an immediate accessible situational information that amplifies ingroup similarities and intergroup differences. The ingroup prototype is essential since it is context specific, this concept helps to describe and define the group memberships attributes according to different social contexts. Group prototypical characteristics are internalized as part of the

self through the process of *self-categorization*: the more fully someone defines the self in terms of specific membership, the more that his or her perceptions, attitudes, feelings, and behaviours conform to the group prototype.

In particular, the process of depersonalization to ingroup prototype usually gives place to normative behaviour which, for instance, is promoted by the ingroup prototype and contextually relevant member (e.g., leader). Members of the group conform to the norms based on their comparative fit; therefore, some members might be more or less similar to the ingroup prototype. Based on the situational accessibility, the group members who embody the ingroup prototype, might conform in one situation and not in a different context. Part of this process is also the extent to which people identify with the group they belong to, the more they identify, the more they are likely to internalize the group prototype. This internalization of ingroup norms, beliefs, attitudes and behaviours, results in treating those as part of the self since these individuals provide information about the group and therefore about the self too. Therefore, if the group membership is salient, the group prototype can act as influential factor and define for the members what being part of the group means.

In terms of leadership, depersonalization of feelings, attitudes and behaviours from individual to collective follows the social attraction hypothesis when the social identity is salient. Desire for acceptance and trust can be transferred to the group prototype. Therefore this results, under social identity salience, that ingroup members who are prototypical get to be also more liked, trusted and preferred to outgroup members (Hogg, 1993). Prototypes are important, when comparison occurs, they can allow the distinction between outgroups and this allows polarization of the ingroup norms and behaviours toward the prototype (known also as metacontrast principle; Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987). This polarization is accentuated when there is a strong ingroup identification. When a member embodies what are the norms of the group this

individual can be elected as the leader; or in other words, the leader is usually the most prototypical member of the group. The idea of the leader as group member and the one who is prototypical of the group as well, is proposed by the extended theory of social identity to leadership.

The Social Identity Approach to Leadership

Contrary to previous leadership theories that focus on the individual (e.g., leadership trait theory Cowley 1931; contingency theory Fiedler 1964, situational theory Sheriff 1966), the newer approach through social identity theory focuses on leadership as group process (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Social Identity theory of Leadership (SITL) considers leadership in terms of group influence and group-oriented motivation to promote group's interest. SITL suggests that leadership effectiveness has to be examined considering the leader as a member of the group she or he leads. Group members refer to the group for the social identity; however, leaders are usually the main source of social identity and uncertainty reduction. Once group membership and individuals' identification become salient this affects the attitudes and behaviours of the members. SIT asserts that leadership effectiveness is determined by the characteristics of group membership of the leader (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In this way, SIT suggests that leaders are effective to the extent that they are a) *prototypical* of the group (and therefore benefit from the depersonalization process) and b) the extent to which the leader is *group-oriented*.

When social identity is salient, leader *prototypicality* leads to a clear distinction between group members who are more or less prototypical. This depersonalization of the self and ingroup members leads to the acceptance of the contextual prototype. Moreover, in intergroup processes, people tend to differentiate their ingroup from the outgroup and usually there is a prototypical group member who is best at promoting this distinction. Research suggests that highly prototypical members are more informative than less prototypical members and more likely to exert influence and power (Hogg, 2001a).

Prototypicality is important also under uncertainty: people will turn to the most prototypical member, the one who embodies group behaviour, to reduce uncertainty. When the leader represents the embodiment of group identity s/he thus becomes the best exemplar of the group (Hogg & Abrams, 1988). Moreover, to the extent to which leader is perceived to be prototypical of the group, is the ability to exert followership as well (Hogg, 2001b).

Therefore, prototypicality is essential as influential basis for leadership. It is important however to remember that people formulate leader preconceptions according to leadership categorization theory (Lord et al., 1984). As explained in the paragraph above this theory suggests that leader preferences are led by cognitive categorization of specific characteristics of a leader. However, according to social identity, this categorization process toward the leader is led by the prototypicality concepts once the group membership is salient. Leadership, according to social identity theory, is not merely a passive process, of a person being prototypical but, more importantly, once the individual is prototypical of the group s/he is also able to actively influence others. This can be done through the social attraction process (Hogg, 2001a).

According to social attraction theory (Hogg, 1992), individuals who are liked are also socially acceptable by ingroup members. Or in other words, ingroup members are liked more than outgroup members and ingroup prototypical members are liked even more than less prototypical ingroup members. Being a socially attractive leader (or ingroup member) results in additional positive outcomes - such as followers more likely obeying to requests and orders proposed by the liked individual (Fielding & Hogg, 1997). Social attractiveness is one of the characteristics of prototypical members; therefore, being prototypical results in being liked and as additional outcome, leaders who are more liked are also more likely to stay in charge for longer periods. Moreover, prototypical leaders

are considered to be more trusting, charismatic and group-oriented (Hogg, 2001; B. van Knippenberg & D. van Knippenberg, 2005).

The effectiveness of a leader is determined also by her/his *group-oriented* behaviour as suggested by work of Giessner and van Knippenberg (2008). In particular, these researchers suggest that in order to gain followers' trust, leaders need to promote group-oriented behaviour (Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008). More specifically, non-prototypical leaders have to gain followers' trust through group-oriented motives whereas, group prototypical leaders are effective even when they don't engage in group-oriented behaviours. Thus, this work suggests that prototypicality and group-oriented behaviour are intrinsically linked to determine leaders' effectiveness. Moreover, these researchers have also explored the conditions under which prototypicality and effectiveness are linked to leader's ability to reach minimal vs. maximal goals. Giessner and van Knippenberg (2008) showed how people judge the leader in quantitative terms when they fail to reach minimal goals (something they are expected to do) and in qualitative terms when they fail to reach maximal goals (something ideal they were expected to do). This suggests that prototypical leaders can be justified when failing in achieving maximal goals since now the leaders are representative of group shared motives.

Additionally, other findings propose that group-oriented prototypical leaders are more charismatic and more persuasive (Platow, Knippenberg, Haslam, Knippenberg, & Spears, 2006). This research supports previous work on transformational and charismatic leadership suggesting that charisma is an outcome of self-categorization that once displayed by the leader helps follower's perceptions to distinguish from ingroup and outgroup, where the leader is easily recognized as ingroup member through his/hers transformational behaviours (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

In the description of social identity approach to leadership, Hogg (2001a) includes the attribution and information processing in conjunction with prototypicality and social

attraction. Attribution and information are not only necessary in order to explain the other's behaviour but also to understand where the self belongs in the group and the world. In fact, when speaking of prototypicality, highly prototypical group members are also highly informative. Distinctive and subjectively important individuals are informational because their behaviour stands out and they are able to inform others about the ingroup prototype (Erber & Fiske, 1984; Taylor & Fiske, 1975). However, if there is a cultural predisposition to believe that leadership effectiveness is due to personality traits, this prototypicality, over time will be attributed to the individual characteristics of leader rather than to the prototypicality of the position occupied. The consequence is that in this way the leader will stand out from other less prototypical members and increase further power imbalance compared to followers. However, when followers adopt dispositional attributional processes when analysing leaders in order to find individualized knowledge about the leader in order to minimize these power distances (Fiske & Dépret, 1996; Hogg, 2001a). This is also reason why prototypical leader behaviours can sometimes be attributed to leader's personality as a result of attributional processes from followers (e.g., charisma).

In sum, the research reviewed suggests that leaders can exert their influence to the degree they are perceived to be prototypical of the group. Additionally, different researchers have supported the notion that leaders' prototypicality, and the extent to which they influence group members, are related to different indices of effectiveness such as trust, turnover intentions, job performance, charisma and support (Pierro, Cicero, Bonaiuto, & Kruglanski, 2005). Building on the centrality of group processes and social identity, in the following section I introduce the concept of *organizational identification*, as form of social identification, and how this can be influenced by the leader.

Organizational Identification

From Social Identity Theory (SIT) it is known that being part of the group is very important because the group becomes the referential for the self. Organizational Identification (OI) is a form of social identification - identification with the organization people work for (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Mael & Ashforth, 1992). OI is important as explains the bonding link between the organization and employees. The growing literature on OI explains *how* and *why* this concept is important suggesting how identification with the organization is essential because it justifies how people promote organizational interests as their own.

This concept has received attention in organizational behaviour research since the late 1940s with the work on administrative behaviour by Simon (1947); however, more recently OI gained a more specific definition with the work of Albert, Ashforth, and Dutton (2000). To understand OI, they suggested it is necessary to define both *identity* and the process of *identification*. Identity can be defined following the concepts deriving from SIT and SCT theories. Identity is a self-referential description that provides contextually appropriate answers when defining individual and collective identities (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008). In the organization this term is referred to *social identity* which is "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (Tajfel, 1978, pg. 63). In contrast, personal identity is defined as "a person's unique sense of self" (Postmes & Jetten, 2006, pg. 260). People have the natural tendency to identify with the group as belonging can increase positive identity, self-esteem and give meaning to the social world they are part of.

The second related concept is *identification,* which Ashforth and Mael (1989) describe as "the perception of oneness or belongingness to some human aggregate when a person's self-concept contains the same attributes as those in the perceived

organizational identity" (Dutton et al., 1994). In other words, OI occurs as human desire to extend the self (identity) and become part of the group.

Based on the social identity theory approach, organizational identification can be considered as a form of social identification. Cheney (1983) defined organizational identification as "an active process by which individuals link themselves to elements in a social scene" (pg. 342). In this way organizational identification is the propensity to which employees pursue same interests and goals of the firm as whole. Researchers have questioned how OI actually affects behaviour in the firm and especially whether identification motivates group members to work for the group's interest and if it can affect their performance (van Knippenberg, 2000). The distinction between identity and identification is important since it suggests how "I am" (being) does not necessarily mean "I believe (certain values)" or "I do" (action). However, when talking about organizational identification, is important that people high in OI are more likely to identify *with* the organization and behave *for* the organization (e.g., OI is related with turnover; see Mael & Ashforth, 1995).

When addressing the question "why do people identify in organizations?" Ashforth et al. (2008) suggest that individuals act according to the process of self-categorization, in particular they focus on concepts such as *self-enhancement* and *self-related motives* (e.g., self-esteem). These researchers suggest that people identify in the organization mainly because they want to preserve a self-positive image. In particular, findings suggest that Organizational Identification is related to self-esteem, since identifying with the organization promotes a positive view of the self within the organization (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000). Moreover, Haslam and Ellemers (2005) explain that OI leads to self-categorization and therefore greater distinction between ingroup and outgroup, which in turn, is motivated by the idea of preserving the self-esteem.

The third question Ashforth, Harrison and Carley (2008) consider is "how organizational identification occur?". They suggest that this process can be either *top-down* or *bottom-up*. In particular, the SIT/SCT approach is top-down, which describes how usually organizations influence the identity of the individuals. For example, the prestige of the company (e.g., "I work for Google") can lead to depersonalization of the self-identity to the social identity (e.g., "I am Google"). However, they suggest that need for identification can be as well a bottom-up process where the thoughts, beliefs and behaviour of individuals can determine the boundaries between the self and the organization (Harquail, 1998). In particular they suggest that sensemaking can lead the person to question their identity and therefore to activate this process bottom-up.

The last question researchers tackle is the existence of multiple identities inside the organization. In particular, keeping in mind previous theories, identities can be defined as personal, social, individual, collective and so on. However, Ashforth and colleagues (2008) suggested considering the co-existence of different levels of self. In particular, the individual can identify with lower level identities such as at the departmental level or at higher level, with the organization as whole. It seems important then to consider that identification can arise at lower level such as teamwork and subunit groups. In fact, Riketta and Dick (2005) found in their meta-analysis that workgroup identification is associated with group satisfaction, climate and group extra role behaviour.

One way to encourage people to identify with the organizations is through the leader. This has been suggested through different previous models and the more recent approach of social identity: *The Group Value Model* (Tyler, 1989), *The Relational Model of Authority* (Tyler & Lind, 1992) and *The Group Engagement Model* (Tyler & Blader, 2000). The basis of these theories is that groups are motivated by social identification which results in group-motivation where the leader is trusted to promote the ingroup

ideals. For example, work on procedural justice (Blader & Tyler, 2009) showed how leaders are able to promote social identification if their authority is perceived to be fair.

Keeping in mind SITL, prototypical leaders, as best exemplars of the group are also the ones who can promote the identification with the organization as whole (Lord & Brown, 2004; Schuh et al., 2012; B. van Knippenberg & D. van Knippenberg, 2005; D. van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Therefore, the leader who is not only part of the group but also who acts for the group, is able to promote identification and allow positive feelings about the self, as individuals and, about the group as whole, as this is one of main groups' motives.

In summary, from the review above, it is clear why OI is an important construct for the organization *per se* but also that it is important because it is related to other attitudinal and behavioural outcomes of value.

Organizational Outcomes of Identification

Organizational Identification has received much attention in the literature given its important relationship with other organizational outcomes. For example both extra role and in role outcomes are related with the OI: cooperation, effort, decision making, participation, task performance (Haslam, 2004; Lee, Park, & Koo, 2015; Riketta, 2008; Riketta & Dick, 2005). Other related outcomes are also turnover and turnover intentions (Mael & Ashforth, 1995; van Dick et al., 2004) organizational citizenship behaviour (Dick, Grojean, Christ, & Wieseke, 2006; Dukerich, Golden, & Shortell, 2002), job satisfaction, (Carmeli, Gilat, & Waldman, 2007; Efraty & Wolfe, 1988), increased social support and helping behaviour in times of work stress (Haslam, O'Brien, Jetten, Vormedal, & Penna, 2005; Levine, Prosser, Evans, & Reicher, 2005).

The recent meta-analysis by Lee et al. (2015) shows how OI is related to the cognitive aspects of variable job involvement and emotional aspects, through job satisfaction. In terms of job involvement, previous literature suggests that people who are

highly involved in their job are also likely to find it meaningful (van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). People high in OI are more likely to find meaning in their job and be involved in it because of this process of identification with the organization, or in other words *depersonalization* from the self to the group. Moreover, the meta-analysis by Lee et al. (2015) supports the link between OI and behavioural outcomes that are not necessarily required by the job, called extra-role performance (e.g., altruism) and in-role performances which are usually behaviours expected in the working environment (e.g., job performance, collective performance). In particular, the link was stronger for extra-role performances suggesting that people are more likely to behave for the good of the company when they identify strongly with it. In fact, previous research has showed how people who identify with their organization are also more likely to help others enhance organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (Dick et al., 2006). A link between OI and turnover was observed by Van Dick et al. (2004). They observed that individuals high in OI are less likely to leave the organization because they identify with it and therefore are more likely to stay and also cooperate with others.

Given these examples, it seems essential to explore further OI and its related outcomes. In particular, given the definition of OI it is important to understand how leader can influence the group in order to achieve these essential outcomes. In fact, if the leader is seen as an ingroup member and OI is defined as social identification, it is possible that the leader is able to exert influence on followers and enhance their OI which then could lead to correlated positive outcomes both for the individual and the organization as whole (see work from Meleady & Crisp, 2017; Schuh et al., 2012; Van Dick, Hirst, Grojean, & Wieseke, 2007).

Summarizing the concepts from SIT and SITL, when a group membership is salient, people tend to identify more with the relevant group (i.e., organization), this effect is stronger if a prototypical member (i.e., leader) promotes shared goals and values and as

a result it can lead to other additional in-role and extra-role outcomes (e.g., OI and lower turnover). For a leader to promote OI, being prototypical implies "close" leadership. A leader who promotes collectiveness, instils similar and close identity with followers, however, leaders are not always "close", they can be "distant", and this can have ambiguous effects on followers. Distance with the leader is a concept that has received attention in various different approaches to leadership, and how distant or close leaders can influence their followers in order to instil shared identity will be described in the next paragraph.

Leader Distance

Researchers have observed that the well-known leadership theories have focused on dyadic or "close" leader-follower relationship (e.g., LMX, Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) which is usually considered as direct type of leadership (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Yukl, 1999). Yammarino (1994), has introduced *indirect leadership* as a way of leaders' ability to influence followers from distance. Similarly, other researchers have suggested that political leaders can influence their followers from distance, and therefore, they can be defined as "distal leaders" (Burns, 1978). A specific definition of leader distance was proposed by Napier and Ferris (1993). They define leader distance in terms of psychological, structural and functional distance where functional distance (i.e., mutual understanding) mediates the relationship between psychological and structural (i.e., physical) distance and the leader-follower relationship.

How close or distant leaders are from their followers is what defines their success and the ability to influence others (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002). In fact, a detailed analysis of the concept led the precise definition of leader distance by Anotnakis and Atwater (2002). These researchers expand the definition proposed by Napier and Ferris (1993) where *leader distance* can be understood through three conceptual elements: physical distance, social distance and perceived interaction frequency. They suggest that the leader

can be perceived as distant if the leader is actually *physically distant*, if s/he focuses on maximising the distance in terms of *status and power* and, lastly, if the leader actually avoids *frequent* contact. Leader distance is crucial in the process of influencing the followers; therefore, it is important to understand how leaders who are close (i.e., LMX leadership) or distant (i.e., political leaders) are still able to influence the followers. One of the boundary conditions is the existence of hierarchical structures that usually define leadership. Leaders who are high-level can display different behaviours than low-level leaders.

Leader distance is not only important when leaders display their behaviour, but also, how followers identify and trust the leader. Antonakis and Atwater (2002) suggest that identification is facilitated by charismatic leadership style. Inspirational leaders, who use motivational and collective language are more likely to inspire followers in sharing the common identity (House, 1977). Therefore, a leader who is charismatic can appear "close" even when physically distant (e.g., political leaders). However, even this situation is bounded by the amount of knowledge followers have about leaders. In other words, when meeting distant leaders, followers would be more prone to judgement based on attributional and assumptive ways of assessing leadership skills. In fact, followers who can directly evaluate leader's performance will base their judgement on relational charisma, while in case of indirect interaction, leader evaluation will be based mostly on attributional charisma.

Another variable that is dependent upon charisma and direct or indirect contact with the leader is trust (Bass, 1985; House, 1977). The degree to which a leader is trusted can be in fact, understood in terms of leader distance. How "close" or "distant" leaders are can be reflected in follower's willingness to trust the leader when s/he is charismatic, or they have enough information about him/her as a result of leader distance. However, Antonakis and Atwater (2002), contrary to the original definition proposed by Napier and

Ferris (1993), propose that intimacy of the contact with followers is not a necessary and boundary condition to obtain success. Leaders who are close and have frequent contact with followers are not necessarily more successful than distant leaders.

The idea of distance in subordinate-supervisor relationship has been analysed also through cognitive approach by (Triandis, 1959). He proposed that cognitive similarity plays an important role especially for interpersonal communication. Triandis (1959), suggests that cognitive similarity could facilitate the communication between a leader and a follower and increase liking.

A more recent theoretical approach introduces the idea of distance and similarity between the ingroup and outgroup in the research on intergroup contact. These researchers proposed a definition of contact in terms of *semantic distance* (Meleady, Crisp, Hodson & Earle, 2018). This perspective defines prototypicality, and the impact of intergroup contact, in terms of semantic distance. In other words, a member of a certain group can be considered as prototypical when there is low semantic distance, while s/he is atypical when the semantic distance is high. Similarly, as the original definition of semantic priming suggests, a certain word can activate a semantically related one, stored in the memory (e.g., low semantic distance: doctor-nurse, high semantic distance: doctor-engineer) (Dehaene et al., 1998; Masson, 1995). Moreover, according to the original idea of contact with prototypical member, the success of contact and increased positive attitudes toward the group will be greater if the contacted outgroup member was prototypical vs. atypical (Brown & Hewstone, 2005). However, contact researchers considered also the effects of contact to other groups as well, not only the groups of direct contact. In particular, *positive* contact with different groups and improved relationships was showed to be generalized at other group-levels too (Hodson & Hewstone, 2013). This type of contact has been defined as secondary transfer effect (STE) (Hodson & Hewstone, 2013; Pettigrew, 2009; Tausch et al., 2010). The secondary transfer effect is explained as semantic distance between

groups in a semantic network. If the contacted group is similar or proximal in the semantic network then positive attitudes can be generalized toward that group (even when there is no contact), otherwise the STE can be limited (Harwood, Paolini, Joyce, Rubin, & Arroyo, 2011; Tausch et al., 2010).

If leader distance is the core element of leader prototypicality, and as such if it has a direct impact on leader influence, then Meleady et al.'s theoretical model (2018) of the link between semantic distance and contact becomes important. Specifically, if contact can reduce perceived semantic distance, then it follows that leader contact could reduce leader distance. With this in mind the following section will review the literature on direct contact, with a particular focus on its impact on semantic distance.

Intergroup Contact Theory

Gordon Allport wrote *The Nature of Prejudice* (1954), the foundation for Intergroup Contact Theory. He focused on the importance of contact between different social groups and how this was the main approach in reducing conflict between groups. *Direct intergroup contact* refers to a face-to-face interaction between members of two different groups. Direct group contact can be defined also as cross-group friendship, where members of different groups through contact can influence other members too. Research on direct contact has been successful in reducing both implicit bias and infrahumanisation (Brown, Eller, Leeds, & Stace, 2007; Vezzali & Giovannini, 2011).

Through Allport's theory it is explained how, when and why intergroup relations can benefit from intergroup contact (Hodson & Hewstone, 2013). In particular he specified that the optimal conditions for contact are: equal status, cooperation, pursuit of common goals and, the support of the institutions. Based on his initial work, subsequently main moderators of intergroup contact have been identified such as: outgroup knowledge, intergroup anxiety and perspective taking and empathy (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008). For example, intergroup contact facilitates how ingroup-outgroup learn about each other. In

particular, the idea is that through contact individuals gain enough information to realize that they are actually more similar than they believe.

The intergroup contact hypothesis focuses on the potential for contact between members of different groups to reduce existing negative intergroup attitudes. A recent meta-analysis showed how intergroup contact generally reduces intergroup prejudice; however, not all the conditions suggested by Allport are always necessary (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008). The co-existence of different variables, such as personal, social, situational both at cognitive and affective level can affect the outcome of contact between groups. In fact, direct contact might not be appropriate under certain conditions (e.g., physical distance or highly segregated groups). For example, Wagner et al. (2003) showed how limited contact with foreigners in East Germany, compared to West Germany, led to increased prejudice towards the outgroup. Therefore, it seemed necessary to consider alternative forms of contact that does not necessarily imply direct contact to improve intergroup relations and reduce distances between groups.

The idea that similarities facilitate intergroup contact has been previously proposed with the Common Ingroup Identity Model by Gaertner, Mann, Murrell, and Dovidio (1989). With this model researchers proposed that contact with the outgroup can lead to positive attitudes when a superordinate category is activated. In particular, this model suggests that intergroup bias can be reduced when similarities with the outgroup are enhanced. In other words, a shift in semantic knowledge from the category "us" to inclusive "we" allows positive intergroup relationships. The knowledge or cognitive shift from one-group to shared identity can lead to positive outcomes such as reduced bias or reduced intergroup anxiety. Gaertner et al. (1996) supported their theoretical model with empirical studies conducted in organizational and educational settings. In particular, they observed different patterns of results in different contexts. In the academic setting, when the superordinate category was being activated, students were more likely to feel closer to

the outgroup (i.e., another school team). Similarly, when common identity was activated for bank executives, they reported lower levels of intergroup anxiety. However, when bank executives were asked to compare themselves to another organization in terms of common identity, greater work-bias was reported. Gartner et al. (1996) justified this in terms of methodological limitations, where in the academic study the term "team" is appropriate while for the organization, has a "warm" connotation. Moreover, in this case, contextual variables might play a role, such as threat to organization as merging its identity with another one. In fact, the mediating variable that was identified when common ingroup identity takes place is the reduced intercategory differentiation (Gaertner et al., 1989). In this way it is possible to understand how a cognitive shift from one group to common identity is dependent of the context which appears characterized through one or other categorical differentiation. On the other hand, other researchers identified moderators such as identification which explains how perceived similarity with the outgroup constitutes a threat to ingroup identity and therefore results in bias toward the similar outgroup (Jetten, Spears, & Manstead, 1996, 2001).

Considering the literature on intergroup contact and how it reveals sometimes contrasting findings when the direct contact is implemented, it seems necessary to consider alternatives ways to improve intergroup relations.

Indirect contact

The main limitation that has been attributed to direct contact is that it might be limited by scarce opportunities to contact such as workplace, school and neighbourhood. Therefore, *indirect intergroup contact* has been proposed as the alternative. This is an umbrella term that considers different types of indirect contact. Indirect contact is based on the theoretical principles derived from intergroup contact theory but does not require face-to-face interaction between its members. The main forms of indirect contact are *extended, vicarious* and *imagined contact*.

Extended Contact

The original work on extended contact was carried out by Wright, Aron, McLaughlin-Volpe, and Ropp (1997). Their *extended contact hypothesis* outlines how extended contact is based on the knowledge of cross-group friendship, the importance of its generalizing effect and reducing intergroup anxiety (Stephan & Stephan, 1985). Additionally, Wright et al. (1997) identified other three mechanisms that reduce bias toward the outgroup: perceptions of ingroup norms about the outgroup, perceptions of outgroup norms about the ingroup and inclusion of the other in self.

The extended contact is one of the different forms of indirect contact. This type of contact is based on the definition that *knowing* that an ingroup member or members have a close relationship with an outgroup member can improve attitudes toward the outgroup (Wright et al., 1997, study 1, 2 and 3). The main difference with the vicarious contact is that this type of contact is based on the mere knowledge of cross-group friendship with an ingroup member. The theoretical premises for extended contact are the cross-group friendship, membership salience and generalization of the contact and, the reduction of intergroup anxiety. In other words, extended contact does not require the direct contact between a member of ingroup and outgroup themselves, it is just necessary that their friend (ingroup member) knows somebody from the outgroup. As suggested by the vicarious dissonance theory (Cooper & Hogg, 2007), knowing that someone from ingroup has a friend from the outgroup will activate the ingroup/outgroup dissonance and intergroup anxiety; however, this discomfort can be reduced when the observer is motivated by positive attitudinal change towards the outgroup in the observer.

Moreover, knowledge about ingroup/outgroup interaction is supposed to lead to generalization of the contact from a member to the outgroup as whole. This is mostly facilitated by the contextual diversity of social networks in case of direct contact. The more a person has a diverse social network, the more s/he is likely to have friends and

extend the indirect contact which in turn will most likely increase also direct contact. However, research has shown that extended contact works better in situations where contact is low as this type of contact serves as a precontact tool with the outgroup. The reason behind this is that observing ingroup/outgroup friendship should not evoke the interaction anxiety and negative emotions as an actual contact would (Wright, Aron & Ropp, 1997).

In the most recent meta-analysis on extended contact Zhou, Page-Gould, Aron, Moyer, and Hewstone (2018) show how this technique is reliable across different types of experiments, different participants and countries. Through this meta-analysis, researchers show the importance of extended contact long term as well. For example, in Germany, a longitudinal study using extended contact showed how intergroup attitudes in German children toward the outgroup (Turkish children) were positively predicted by this type of contact 7 months later (Feddes, Noack, & Rutland, 2009).

Wright et al. (1997) have identified different moderators to the extended contact: intergroup anxiety, positive ingroup norms, positive outgroup norms and inclusion of the other in self. In particular, intergroup anxiety can be defined as fear or arousal due to negative emotions provoked by the presence of the outgroup that might behave in offensive ways (Stephan & Stephan, 1985). Wright et al. (1997) showed that observing contact with an outgroup provokes less anxiety than the actual direct contact. This happens because direct contact elicits greater anxiety when the outgroup is met for the first time or when there are negative preconceptions. Anxiety as mediational process has also been found in multiple studies with indirect contact (Mazziotta et al., 2011; Turner, Crisp, & Lambert, 2007).

The definition of extended contact is learning that an ingroup member has a close friendship with an outgroup member. The ingroup members who constitute source of information for the group are seen as the ones who will set the positive norms toward the

outgroup. This process occurs through self-categorization - when group membership is salient ingroup members categorize themselves in terms of collective ingroup norms (Jetten et al., 1996). In other words, knowing that an ingroup member has positive contact with the outgroup members allows the ingroup members to set positive norms toward the outgroup based merely on the knowledge of cross-group friendship.

Another important mechanism for extended contact is the positive outgroup norms. Having expectancies on the behaviour of the outgroup member can shape the willingness in contact with that person. Learning that an outgroup member is behaving positively toward an ingroup member can affect ingroup members' perceptions about the outgroup as whole. In terms of indirect contact, Mazziotta et al., (2011) tested the meta-perceptions (i.e., perceptions about outgroup's warmth and competence when they are in contact with ingroup member) with German participants who were observing positive interactions with Chinese people and German ingroup members. In their study, the researchers show how attitudes toward the outgroup where improved and resulted in increased self-efficacy regarding the engagement in future contact with Chinese participants.

Lastly, Inclusion of the Other in Self (IOS). IOS measures the psychological distance to others (A. Aron, E. Aron & Smollan, 1992; Aron et al., 2004). This scale is usually comprised of seven pairs of circles that gradually overlap where one circle represents the self and the other, can be another member of the ingroup, member of the outgroup or outgroup as whole. People choose the pair of circles based on their perceived similarity with the others. It is assumed that ingroup members are included in the self and treated as part of the self. For example, knowing that someone from ingroup has a close friend from the outgroup, can result in greater inclusiveness in self of the outgroup member too, as a result of extended contact. When people develop feelings of closeness with the others resulting in overlapping of other and self, which could lead to improved attitudes toward the outgroup as now part of the self too. Evidence for IOS as mediator

has been supported by other literature that explores extended contact (Capozza, Falvo, Trifiletti, & Pagani, 2014; Lienemann & Stopp, 2013; Vezzali, Capozza, Stathi, & Giovannini, 2012). In fact, Capozza et al. (2014) suggest how IOS is linked to greater humanization, more trust in the outgroup and empathy. Vezzali et al. (2014) argue that feelings of being "close to others" can moderate cognitively the effect of indirect contact. Similarity to others as ingroup members or even between ingroup and outgroup has been explored in research on indirect contact. Extended contact through ingroup members have been tested in different contexts such as ingroup neighbour members, co-workers or family members (Meeusen, 2014). The extended contact might be even more successful when individuals perceive greater closeness with the similar members than those distant ones (Tausch, Hewstone, Schmid, Hughes, & Cairns, 2011). They found out that extended contact with closer ingroup members resulted in greater trust in the outgroup than with less intimate members.

Vicarious contact

When describing alternative ways of contact some of researchers integrated ideas from extended contact and principles of social learning theory in order to define a vicarious type of contact (Bandura 1986). The definition of vicarious contact starts with *vicarious dissonance theory* (Cooper & Hogg, 2007). The dissonance arises when an ingroup members is observed interacting positively with an outgroup member. This observation creates psychological discomfort that can only be reduced if the observer changes positively his or her attitudes toward the outgroup member as observed. In other words when people observe someone interacting with an outgroup member, and they identify with this individual, this influences their perceptions of how they should behave towards outgroup members.

The second theoretical tool in understanding vicarious contact is the *social cognitive theory* (Bandura, 1986). This theory suggests that people learn from the

observation of social norms. In particular this observation of others' behaviour is called observational learning, the social cognitive theory suggests that the observation of similar others (e.g., someone typical of the group) might lead to cross-group friendship and reduced bias (Vezzali et al., 2014). In other words, observing an influential person can shape personal behaviour, and help acquire new knowledge and skills.

An additional theory that can help understand vicarious contact is *Vicarious Self-perception Theory* (Goldstein & Cialdini, 2007). This theory posits that people usually judge others' behaviour in terms of self-perceptions. In particular, when people identify with someone (ingroup members) they are more likely to observe the behaviour of that member as their own because of the processes of merged identity. Therefore, if the individual observes a friend interacting with an outgroup member, he/she is more likely to infer information about that person and as now merged identity, to consider those behaviours as their own too.

Vicarious contact can be also observed in the media, where this type of communication constitutes the main source of information about the outgroup for some people. Research on mass media communication suggest that ingroup members have influence on vast number of viewers even when they are not consciously aware of it (Schiappa, Gregg, & Hewes, 2005). In particular, findings from social psychology on prejudice, suggest that viewing television programs that display positive intergroup interaction results in lower prejudice. For example, exposure to images and visual portrayal can alter the way people socially categorize, in particular can change the focus from ingroup to outgroup (i.e., "we"-"they") to a more inclusive perception ("us") (Houlette et al., 2004). Moreover, vicarious contact can influence perceptions of contact and improve engagement in future contact.

Specifically, *vicarious* contact considered as a process of *viewing* (rather than just *knowing)* a positive interaction between ingroup and outgroup members results in positive attitudes toward the outgroup. Furthermore, research on vicarious contact argues this type of contact has positive effects resulting in greater feelings for self-efficacy and promoting interactions that involve self (Mallett & Wilson, 2010).

However, vicarious contact does not have to necessarily be portrayed through a visual form. Vicarious contact can be observed also through stories, newspapers or radio programmes. In this way, the observer does not directly witness intergroup contact but can experience it through the narrative of the author. For example, a study with Finnish adolescents who were asked to read a story about positive interaction with foreigners, reported increased tolerance toward the immigrants (Liebkind & McAllister, 1999; Liebkind, Mähönen, Solares, Solheim, & Jasinskaja-Lahti, 2014). The importance of positive interaction has been reinforced by studies that show how observing negative interactions between ingroup and outgroup can have detrimental consequences on outgroup attitudes. For example, Dovidio (2009), shows how even non-verbal behaviour such as body language or facial expressions, can imply bias towards outgroup and, when this is portrayed through media, results in increased racial prejudice.

The use of vicarious contact has been successful across different social contexts, for different groups, different ethnicities and ages (for a review see Vezzali et al., 2014). Therefore, vicarious contact can be a useful tool in order to shape intergroup behaviour promoting positive relations between different groups. In particular, in terms of this thesis, observing a leader interacting with members of the ingroup could lead to positive attitudes toward the leader and the organization as whole.

Imagined intergroup contact

In his early publications, Allport mentions some form of interaction at "fantasy level" as he recognizes the importance of other forms of contact. Imagined intergroup

contact has been therefore proposed as a precontact tool to direct contact when direct contact is limited under certain conditions (Crisp & Turner, 2012).

Imagined contact has been defined as the mental simulation of contact between a member or members of ingroup and outgroup (Crisp & Turner, 2009). It involves a positive social interaction with another group, and it has been widely used by social psychologists to reduce prejudice. Therefore, the two main critical components of imagined contact are *simulation* and *positive tone*. It is important that the participant engages in the simulation of the encounter (i.e., "imagine meeting the member of the outgroup"), as simply thinking about the encounter does not produce the same effect (Turner, Crisp, & Lambert, 2007). The second element, positivity, is crucial since only the positive simulation can have an impact in the experimental approach, while negative or neutral simulation might have opposite effect (Stathi & Crisp, 2008a; West, Holmes, & Hewstone, 2011). Therefore, the baseline task of imagined contact would be: "we would like you to take a minute to imagine yourself meeting [an outgroup] stranger for the first time. Imagine that the interaction is positive, relaxed, and comfortable" (Crisp & Turner, 2012, pg. 136). A consistent number of studies including imagined contact have documented the beneficial effects in reducing prejudice (for meta-analysis see Miles & Crisp, 2014).

The present research

The present research is based on the idea that indirect contact with the leader should improve attitudes toward the organization as whole, which results in higher Organizational Identification and lower Turnover. In particular, the present research is trying to address the research gaps existing in literature that combines social and organizational approaches. Previous research on leadership has mostly focused on leaders as individuals and how through direct contact they are able to influence followers (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002). Research has supported prototypical leaders and how their

inspirational collectiveness inspires followers' endorsement (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). However, little research has focused on indirect ways of communication between leaders and followers. Specifically, past research has focused on analysing leader's speeches or communication (Steffens & Haslam, 2013), on one hand, and on the other, academics have focused on different ways of online communication (Neufeld, Wan & Wang, 2010). What the present thesis is aiming to do, is to introduce research on online communication with the leader, through online experimental methodology. One way of doing so, is to bind elements of indirect contact with leadership literature. This has been introduced by the work from Meleady and Crisp (2017), however, the present thesis is trying to address further research questions and ways of online communication. In particular, this research combines different ways of online leader communication such as video messages, e-mails and imagined contact. The aim of the present thesis is to test how leader prototypicality can elicit greater sense of collectiveness even when there is no direct contact with followers. Such approach that focuses on indirect contact and leadership constitutes the novelty of the present thesis. Moreover, this thesis will focus on how the presence of others elicits leaders' prototypicality and therefore greater social identity. Contact with others (i.e., followers) has been usually proposed as direct type of contact, however, research on indirect contact provides an array of possibilities to test this hypothesis (i.e., extended, vicarious, imagined contact). Lastly, this thesis addresses leader rhetoric. Previous research has focused on analysing existing speeches from leaders (Steffens & Haslam, 2013), this thesis will experimentally test whether followers prefer individualistic vs. collectivistic rhetoric.

Based on the literature on indirect contact and leadership prototypicality, the conceptual model (see Figure 2.1.) was tested in 10 experiments. Figure 2.1. outlines when contact between leaders and followers is observed, this should increase leaders' prototypicality for the organization and, in turn, organizational identification (Hogg,

2001). The extended contact hypothesis proposes that the knowledge of an ingroup member being friends with a member of the outgroup, improves intergroup attitudes toward the outgroup (Wright et al., 1997, 2009). Following this logic, in my conceptual model, the perceiver can be considered as an ingroup member who observes the outgroup member (leader) who is in positive contact with members from perceiver's ingroup (followers).

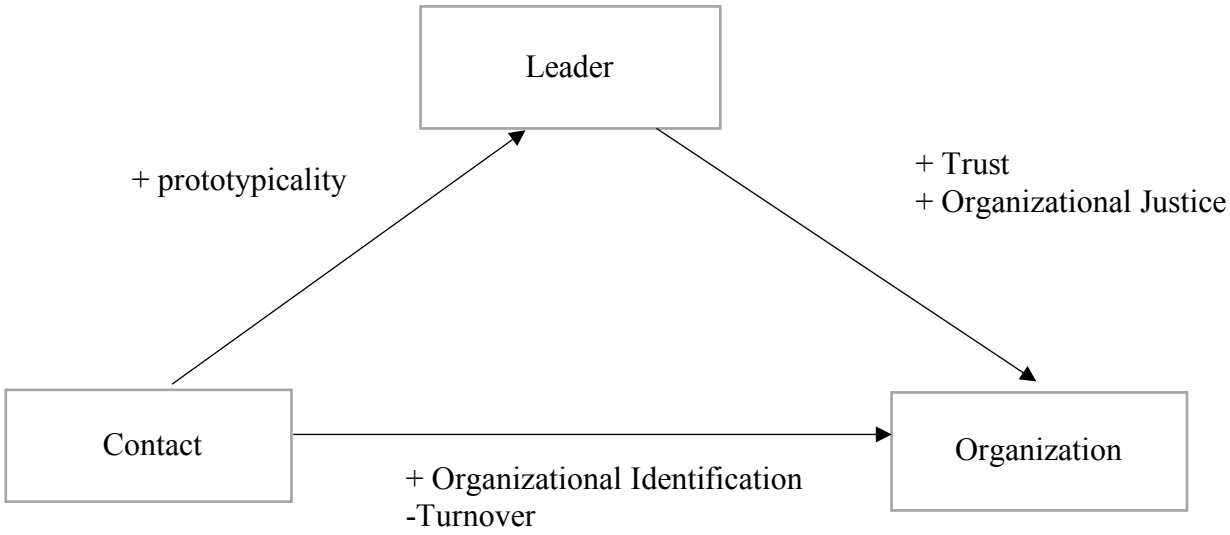

Figure 2. 1 Contact with the leader instils group prototypicality and, in turn, greater OI and lower TI.

Given the preceding literature review, in the present thesis, I will address the following research questions.

RQ1: How can indirect contact with the leader increase organizational identification and lower turnover intentions?

RQ2: Which types of leader communication are most effective at influencing follower identification?

These RQs were tested through the use of a video (vicarious contact) where the leader addresses the organization with the presence or absence of an audience (Chapter 3).

RQ3: Can leader's use of individualistic vs. collectivistic rhetoric elicit higher organizational identification?

To answer this RQ, in the experiments described in Chapter 4 the speech from the video used in Chapter 3 was presented in email format to examine how the rhetorical use of pronouns "I" vs. "we" could promote leader prototypicality and therefore result in higher perceived similarity. In this chapter the prototypicality or similarity with the leader was manipulated through the use of individualistic vs collectivistic rhetoric. In particular, it was tested whether the use of "I" vs. "we" in leader rhetoric elicited higher semantic similarity and therefore could result in higher organizational identification.

RQ4: Can imagined contact with the leader increase organizational identification?

This RQ was examined in the final experimental chapter, Chapter 5. In this chapter, participants imagined contact as an individual or in a group meeting with the leader.

These research questions are specifically addressed in the following hypothesis:

H1: Observing the leader with an audience (vs. without audience) will result in greater organizational identification and lower turnover intentions.

H2: Participants will show greater organizational identification and lower turnover intentions when the leader uses collectivistic (vs individualistic) rhetoric.

H3: The effect described in H2 will be moderated by individualism and collectivism. Participants high in collectivism will prefer collectivistic rhetoric, while those high in individualism will prefer individualistic rhetoric.

H4: Imagined contact with the leader in a group (vs. alone) will lead to greater organizational identification, lower turnover intentions, greater trust and higher perceived procedural justice.

Chapter 3

Enhancing Organizational Identification through Indirect Contact with Leaders: The Role of Audience Presence

Abstract

This chapter describes four experiments that aimed to test novel hypotheses regarding how leaders can enhance organizational identification through indirect contact. Specifically, a video message of a supposed CEO was created and then presented to participants either with or without ingroup members present. Following this, measures of leader-follower distance and organizational identification were taken. It was hypothesised that the leader's message would exert a greater social influence on perceivers as imagined employees when their message was delivered with an audience present vs. not present. However, the results did not support this hypothesis. Limitations and possible reasons for the absence of observed effects are discussed.

Introduction

"There is something only a CEO uniquely can do, which is set that tone, which can then capture the soul of the collective." - Satya Nadella, (CEO of Microsoft)

Tim Cook, the CEO of Apple, recently sent a reassuring email to his employees following President Trump's advocacy for stricter measures on immigration. Cook reassured his employees with the following message: "*Apple would not exist without immigration, let alone thrive and innovate the way we do […]. Apple is open. Open to everyone, no matter where they come from, which language they speak, who they love or how they worship. Our employees represent the finest talent in the world, and our team hails from every corner of the globe.*" (retrieved online: youstory.com, 2017).

Similarly, the CEO of Microsoft, Satya Nadella, promoted employees' empowerment and attention to the customer with the following speech: "*Digital transformation represents a massive opportunity. We see this trend playing out as every company is impacted by technology in completely new, and sometimes unexpected ways, and together we must push ourselves to rethink the opportunity in front of us and our customers*" (financialexpress.com).

How leaders deliver effective messages to their followers, inspire them, and gain the necessary trust to exert power, are enduring questions for leaders and researchers worldwide. How to inspire followers through leader communications is the central research question of this thesis. In this first empirical chapter, I draw upon Social Identity Theory and Intergroup Contact Theory to specify and test a novel theoretical model of how people identify themselves as part of the group they work for, how the leader can be part of this group, how s/he can promote shared identity and goals and finally how this can be achieved by adapting principles of contact that do not require face-to-face contact: indirect contact.

Social Identity Theory and Organizational Identification

Social Identity Theory (Turner 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979), together with its theoretical extension, self-categorization theory (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987) described group behaviour in terms of attributes at distinct psychological levels (i.e., cognitive, emotional, motivational and social) (see Chapter 2). The main assumption underlying these theories is the idea that people define themselves in terms of social groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner 1975). Specifically, people define themselves not only in terms of individual traits "I" but also, in terms of collective such as "we" (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979, 1986). When doing so, people define their *social* identity. Need for the social identity is motivated by the intrinsic need to maintain a positive identity about oneself. Individuals are able to do so through a positive image of the self and through members of the group the person belongs to. In other words, members of the specific social group provide a positive feeling about the self which in turn motivates people to be part of that group (e.g., political, organizational, social). The Social Identity Theory (SIT) was first developed to understand intergroup conflicts when an ingroup is being compared to the outgroup on a certain variable of comparison (e.g., gender: female vs. male). The importance of this theory for the present thesis derives from its recent application to the organizational context. In particular, following the tenets of this theory, such as how a group is formed and why organizations can be considered as social groups with which members can identify with and fuel the positive image of the self.

In fact, Social Identity Theory enables the definition of Organizational Identification (OI) as the extent to which a member identifies with the organization and in this way contributes to defining the self-identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). According to SIT individuals identify with social groups in order to maintain positive self-esteem and reduce uncertainty in the world they live (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Hogg & Turner, 1985). In

this way it is important to take into account OI, not only because OI affects both the individual, but also the effectiveness of the organization as a whole (Brown, 1969; Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970). In particular, it has been shown that OI has multiple positive behavioural intragroup outcomes such as support, commitment, cooperation, altruism and, positive evaluation of the group (Stryker & Serpe, 1982; Turner 1982, 1984; Mael 1988). OI is also related to attitudinal outcomes. For example, Van Knippenberg and Sleebos (2006) suggest that individuals with high OI are more likely to find their job meaningful while other studies demonstrate a positive relationship with outcomes such as job involvement (Hassan, 2010; Van Knippenberg & Van Schie, 2000) and job satisfaction (Van Dick et al., 2004; Van Knippenberg, Van Dick, & Tavares, 2007). Furthermore, when people identify with their organization, they also show increased organizational citizenship behaviour (Van Dick, Grojean, Christ, & Wieseke, 2006), rule-following behaviour (Tyler & Blader, 2001) and lower turnover intentions (Abrams, Ando, & Hinkle, 1998).

Social Identity Theory, therefore, provides valuable insights into group behaviour with clear relevance for organizational contexts. Identifying with the organization is important for the self since being part of the organization allows being part of the group, and in turn increases self-esteem while reducing uncertainty. When people identify with the organization they work for, they are more likely to work for it as the organization is now part of the self. Moreover, OI is important given its positive relationship with other organizational outcomes such as lower turnover, greater organizational citizenship behaviour and commitment. To enhance organizational identification, the leader, as a core group member, should be able to inspire the followers to feel closer to the organization as whole. In the next section, I will explain how the leader if considered as a group member, is able to promote identification with the organization and therefore inspire and guide followers to work toward a common goal.

Leader Prototypicality

Given the importance of leaders as sense-makers, persuasive and inspiring members of the group, it is important to consider their role as capable individuals who are able to inspire followers to obtain positive effects for everyone (Hogg & Abrams, 1988). The Social Identity Theory extended to Leadership (SITL) defines leadership as a group process where the leader is the one who can inspire his/her followers and promote their social identity. According to SITL, the leader can be the prototype of the group or in other words the most stereotypical member of the group. More specifically, leadership effectiveness relies on the idea of prototypicality, because people usually tend to define themselves in terms of group identity (group membership) rather than personal identity (e.g., interpersonal relations).

When the leader is seen as representative of the group, his/her effectiveness varies upon this level of prototypicality. Here it is important to note that being prototypical does not mean being average or a typical member of the group but rather personifying the ideal position in the group (B. van Knippenberg, D. van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2005). Prototypicality allows leaders to promote, at the same time, ingroup identity and innovation and, this position allows them to display sometimes unusual and unconventional behaviour especially when it comes to leading toward new directions (Abrams, Randsley de Moura, Marques, & Hutchison, 2008). For example, the more prototypical the leader, the more likely it is that he or she will obtain trust, social consensus, influence and attributions (Giessner, van Knippenberg, van Ginkel, & Sleebos, 2013; Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001; van Dijke & de Cremer, 2008). Therefore, the prototypical leader is more likely to be trusted and supported even when s/he is not acting like the typical/average member of the group. This can be explained also through the meta-contrast ratio principle where the prototypical position can be considered as fluid especially when there is intergroup differentiation (Jetten, Spears, & Postmes, 2004). In

other words, when there is a comparison with the outgroup, the prototype can shift along a variable of comparison in order to enhance intragroup differentiation.

When group membership is salient prototypicality-leadership relations become stronger (Hains, Hogg, & Duck, 1997). When the leader is ingroup oriented, this not only serves to endorse the social identity, but also gives a perception to other ingroup members that "the leader is doing it for us" and at the same time distinguishes from other outgroup members, "this makes us better than them" (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). This was investigated by Platow and van Knippenberg (2001) where they demonstrated how both distributive justice and prototypicality are important in followers' endorsement of leaders. These authors showed that highly identified followers supported more prototypical leaders regardless of their degree of favouring (ingroup, outgroup, or even). This implies that leaders prototypicality is not only important because of what they represent, but also how followers perceive it. According to this research, a prototypical leader inspires followers to strongly identify with the group and promotes shared ingroup interests. In terms of distributive justice, even when the leader treats differently the ingroup and outgroup, this is less perceived as injustice when it comes from a prototypical leader than a non-prototypical one. On the other hand, when the leader fails in delivering the task this can result in less endorsement by followers. In particular, Giessner and van Knippenberg (2008) specify that leaders' failure is determined in terms of qualitative and quantitative elements. Specifically, when leaders fail to achieve minimal goals they are judged in terms of qualitative characteristics (acceptable or non-acceptable), on the other hand, when they fail to achieve maximum goals their performance is valued in terms of qualitative characteristics (more or less positive). More importantly, this is also explained in terms of prototypicality, prototypical leaders were considered more effective even when they failed to reach maximum goals, compared to non-prototypical leaders. When leaders failed to reach minimal goals, being prototypical or non-prototypical leader, didn't make any

significant difference. Following this research, it could be inferred that even in times of crises, prototypical leaders could be "sheltered" by their inclusive and inspiring behaviour compared to non-prototypical leaders (van Knippenberg et al., 2005).

In organizations, the idea of the leader as a prototype has an important influence on how the followers identify with the organization (i.e., organizational identification). The idea that a leader can effectively promote positive behaviour such as cooperation, identification and belongingness has been supported by previous research (Ashforth & Mael, 1989b; De Cremer & Van Knippenberg, 2002). Leaders who promote positive within-group behaviours and group belongingness can elicit higher group involvement and identification, which in turn results in a series of positive outcomes such as cooperation and organizational identification. In this way, a prototypical leader seems crucial in obtaining positive organizational behaviours (e.g., organizational identification and lower turnover).

Given the importance of organizational identification for the successful functioning of organizations and the key role that (especially prototypical) leaders play in promoting organizational identification, it seems necessary to find ways to facilitate the function of leaders in this regard. I argue that insights can be found in research on intergroup contact. The usual organizational realities allow direct contact with the leader and this type of contact has been mostly described in leadership literature through different theories (e.g., LMX, transformational and charismatic leadership; Bass & Avolio, 1993). In particular, existing leadership theories would advance the importance of direct and frequent contact with the leader for a successful relationship (Kacmar et al., 2003). However, when the opportunities for contact are limited (e.g., in a multinational company where the CEO does not have the possibility to meet everyone) it is necessary to rely on indirect contact. The current literature on indirect contact proposes the use of extended, vicarious and imagined

type of contact and those will be described in the following paragraph to justify how a leader can rely on those as the alternative to direct contact.

Direct contact with the leader

Leader physical distance can vary upon the differential organizational structure. The leader, depending on for example the hierarchical structure or the size of an organization can be sharing the same office, the same floor or building with other employees. Kerr and Jermier (1978) have suggested that physical distance is essential for successful leadership as it permits, if reduced distance, frequent direct interactions with followers. Similarly, Napier and Ferris (1993) propose that physical distance should be limited. However, it is important to note that these authors considered mostly relationships of dyadic nature or with a limited number of followers. However, in bigger organizations, where the CEO has thousands of employees, regular contact with most of them would be impossible.

Other researchers, observed negative relationships between leader distance and leader performance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). Similarly, Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999) analysed the relationship between transformational, contingent reward and management-by-exception leadership and followers' performance and distance. They found that transformational leadership was related to performance when leaders were close rather than distant. On the other hand, contingent reward leadership was related to performance in distant vs. close leaders. Lastly, for the management-by-exception the relationship with performance was dependent on the degree of active vs. passive type of leadership. In active management-by-exception, performance was better in close relations, whereas, in passive leadership style, the performance of followers was negatively related to close rather than distant leaders (Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999).

In fact, in the organization, it is possible that the leader is physically distant but, socially close or vice versa (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002). Some researchers suggest that

is necessary to distinguish social from a physical distance with the leader. Social or psychological distance has been defined in terms of additional four characteristics: demographic distance, power distance, perceived similarity and values similarity. Therefore, for example, a leader can be socially close when s/he shares similar age, gender or the shared values and beliefs. On the other hand, physical distance is usually defined in terms of proximity, how close is the follower and how frequent is the leader-follower interaction.

When leaders are bounded by distance, certain types of leadership such as transformational style can still have impactful effects on followers (Yammarino, 1994). In fact, Yammarino (1994), introduced indirect leadership to allow the definition of leader influence even when socially or physically distant. Examples of distant leaders can be found in the political context where leaders are able to influence distant followers mostly through their rhetoric. In fact, what some researchers consider as essential for distant leaders is the attributions followers infer from leader's rhetoric, image-building techniques and presentation of an ideology (Shamir, 1995).

In the present thesis, the alternative to direct contact will be specified through the intergroup theories of indirect contact. Such theories had been successfully applied in intergroup relations; therefore, if leadership is considered a group process, indirect contact can be applied here through the social lens. The next paragraph will introduce those techniques to explain how indirect contact can be applied within the organizational context with the leader.

Indirect Contact with the Leader: Extended and Vicarious Contact

There is now a growing corpus of work on the so-called Indirect Contact in Social Psychology (Dovidio, Eller, & Hewstone, 2011; Crisp & Turner, 2012; Husnu & Crisp, 2010; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006; Stathi & Crisp, 2008). Indirect contact includes imagined, extended and vicarious type of contact. The imagined contact is based on principles of

mental simulation which is an activity that involves imitation of an event or series of events similar to direct experiences (Taylor & Schneider, 1989).

The extended contact hypothesis was first described by Wright, Aron, McLaughlin-Volpe and Ropp (1997) as a member-to-group type of contact. Specifically, knowledge that an ingroup member has a close friend from the outgroup, improves intergroup attitudes toward the outgroup as a whole. This process is stronger when there is an ingroup positive member (e.g., leader) from whom other group members can take example (Jetten, Spears, & Manstead, 1996b). For many years the main definition of extended contact has been the one provided by Wright et al. (1997); however, a recent meta-analysis by Zhou, Page-Gould, Aron, Moyer, and Hewstone (2018) suggests two important distinctions when defining extended contact. They distinguish between *actual* and *perceived* extended contact. The actual extended contact refers to the cross-group friendship of an actual number of certain members. While the perceived extended contact can be *underestimated*, when people do not know the ingroup members or, *overestimated* when people perceive that there is a friendship between ingroup and outgroup member when there is not.

Experimental work by Wright et al., (1997) has demonstrated how extended contact can improve intergroup attitudes through the mere reading or hearing about cross-group indirect friendship. In Study 3, Wright et al., (1997) used extended contact among American undergraduates where two representative participants from respective ingroup-outgroup groups reported cross-group friendship to their ingroup. The results revealed evidence of less stereotyping and greater allocation of money in the experimental condition versus the baseline.

Recent research suggests four main mediators in the model of extended contact (Vezzali et al., 2014): ingroup norms, outgroup norms, intergroup anxiety and the-inclusion-of-the-out-group-in-the-self (TIOGS; Aron et al., 2004). Vezzali et al., (2014)

categorize these mediators as cognitive and affective. Specifically, extended contact improves attitudes between the ingroup and outgroup through ingroup compliance and shapes the ingroup and outgroup norms through reciprocal liking (e.g., "we like them", "they like us"). Secondly, the extended contact approach can lead to reduced intergroup anxiety when facing unpleasant encounters with the outgroup. For example, observing an in-group-out-group friendship involving others should not evoke the interaction anxiety and negative emotions for the observer that actual contact with participants might, but instead promote effects such as greater inclusion of others in self (Wright, Aron, McLaughlin-Volpe; & Ropp, Stacy, 1997).

Another variation of extended contact, called vicarious contact, showed similar positive intergroup attitudes. Vicarious contact can be performed when viewing television programs that display positive intergroup interaction. This type of contact has been useful in reducing prejudice. For example, exposure to images and visual portrayal can alter the way people socially categorize, in particular can change the focus from ingroup to outgroup (i.e., "we"-"they") to a more inclusive perception ("us") (Houlette et al., 2004). In two studies Mazziotta et al. (2011) used videos of the outgroup displayed to participants in order to see if this type of extended contact would predict more willingness to interact with the outgroup. Their results showed a greater willingness to engage and more positive attitudes toward the outgroup. In particular, this was observed when the video was showing an interaction between ingroup and outgroup (German-Chinese) vs. ingroup members only (Germans).

Vicarious contact can also influence perceptions of contact and improve engagement in future contact. Specifically, this type of contact, considered as a process of *viewing* (rather than just *knowing)* a positive interaction between ingroup and outgroup members, results in positive attitudes toward the outgroup. Furthermore, research on vicarious contact argues that this type of contact has positive effects resulting in greater

feelings of self-efficacy and promoting interactions that involve self (Mallett & Wilson, 2010).

To date, no research has applied contact theory to leadership social influence except of a study by Meleady and Crisp (2017). This study explored the effects of indirect contact through mental simulation in the organizational setting. Results from this research show that mental simulation can be used in organizations in order to promote positive outcomes such as higher organizational identification, greater engagement in organizational citizenship behaviours and fostering employees' performance and motivation. In particular, through the use of imagined contact with the leader, not only was OI stronger, but the leader was also evaluated more positively. Through this approach of mental simulation, it was possible to generalize the positive imagined interaction with the leader to the organization as a whole. This was tested online and through three different experimental studies that used a variety of scenarios (e.g., experimental such as meeting the CEO or control such as walking outdoors).

In the present research, I applied the imagined contact as in Meleady and Crisp (2017) but modified it by considering extended and vicarious contact through the use of visual multimedia.

The present research

In the present research, leaders communicated with followers through visual communication (i.e., video). In particular, drawing on the aforementioned theories and research, the following four experiments explored how leader prototypicality and cross-group friendship affects followers' identification with the organization. According to the SITL (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003) leaders can promote a shared identity which in organizational terms should result in higher organizational identification. OI was expected to increase due to contact with the leader and other ingroup members, who will promote shared identity and therefore reinforce the social identity which in organizational terms is

OI. Moreover, from the Extended Contact Theory, the positive knowledge about ingroup-outgroup relationship was expected to result in higher "closeness" with the company as a whole (i.e., Flash Media) (see Figure 3.1). I first predicted that the presence vs. absence of ingroup members in the social scene will enhance Organizational Identification and result in lower Turnover Intentions (H1). Moreover, when the ingroup membership is salient (i.e., the audience is part of Flash Media or the general public), the first prediction will have even stronger effect (H2). The second hypothesis was tested in Experiment 3.

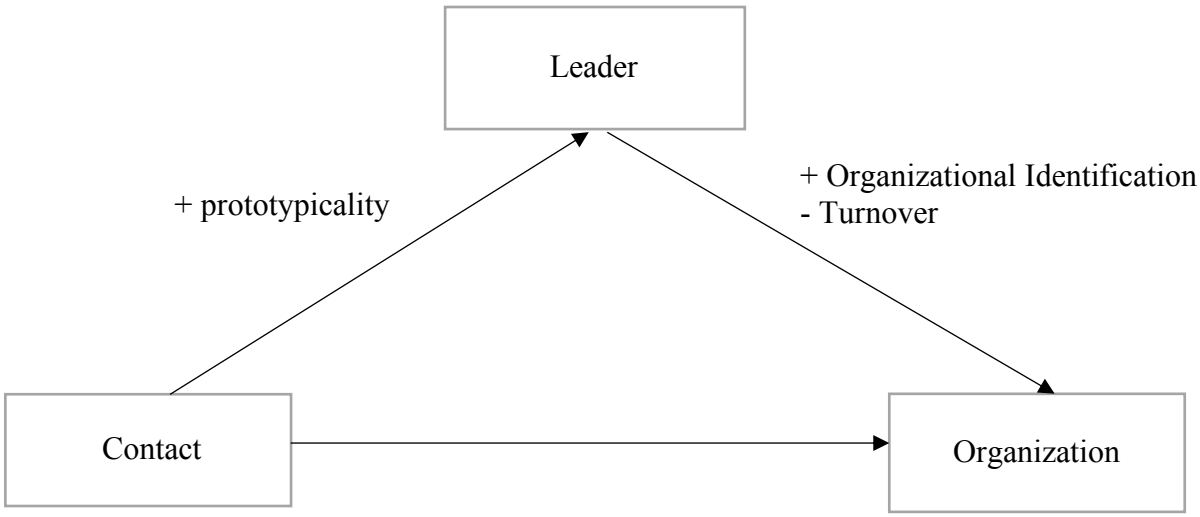

Figure 3. 1 Observing contact with the leader instils group prototypicality and therefore greater OI and lower TI.

Experiment 1

Method

In the first experiment, imagined and extended contact techniques were used in order to foster organizational identification through the leader. Specifically, an experimental vignette methodology was based on the previous study from Meleady and Crisp (2017). This type of procedure is widely used in organizational psychology and leadership research (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). Next, based on extended contact theory and, in particular the vicarious approach, a staged video of a CEO giving a speech on the annual resolution of the company was presented to participants. It was expected that participants who imagined and watched the video of the CEO (talking to the audience)

would report increased OI in comparison to those who watched the baseline video (i.e., leader alone, no audience).

Participants

A power analysis was performed a priori with the program *G*Power* (Erdfelder, Faul & Buchner, 1996), keeping the desired level of power 1 - β = .80 and α= .05 (Cohen, 1988), therefore 150 participants were targeted for this research. Prolific Academic allowed the recruitment of one hundred fifty-eight participants (114 females, 42 males; two did not indicate their demographic data) from the UK. This online research tool is widely used for its diverse and large participant pool, compensation system and quality data compared to other online platforms (Peer, Samat, Brandimarte, & Acquisti, 2015). The survey was advertised as an imagery task with compensation of £1 in exchange for participation. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 70 (M = 36.68, SD = 12.68). They were randomly assigned to one of 2 conditions (audience vs. no audience).

Design and Procedure

Independent Variables. Firstly, an organizational vignette was presented to the participants. This vignette contained a description of a fictitious company named "Flash Media". The description of the vignette was as the following:

"Please read the following extract closely:

> We would like you to imagine that you work for a company named Flash Media. Flash media is a marketing agency. Their business involves creating, planning and producing advertising campaigns for client groups. The company has been established for over 50 years. They have multiple offices across the country and a large portfolio of work for a broad range of clients. They employ over 600 members of staff. On a day-to-day basis your job involves taking briefs from

clients and liaising with designers and programmers to ensure that projects are delivered on time and to specification.

Now watch carefully this video of the CEO of Flash Media giving his annual debrief."

This vignette was used in both conditions (audience vs. no audience). Participants were asked to imagine that they work for the company and then to watch carefully the CEO who was giving an annual debrief of the company. Following this imagery task, a video of the CEO with or without an audience made up of employees was presented to the participant.

The CEO gave an inspirational speech that was inspired by the theory of shared identity. In particular, the speech was identical in both conditions and based on world-famous CEOs like Satya Nadella and Steve Jobs (a link to the videos is available in Appendix A). For example, the following phrases of the CEO's speech were presented to the participants: "[..] the achievements of our company are due to your passion and your drive to make it better. We will work as a big team in order to make the most of our organization. We will reward your commitment by supporting you and your needs."

Moreover, charismatic tendencies were included in the speech to instil identity. Previous literature suggests how charismatic leadership style promotes group-oriented behaviour going beyond the self-interest, usually promoting collective identity and collective mission (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Moreover, we sought to avoid any additional confounding variables in the condition with the audience, therefore the audience wouldn't interact, but rather just listen and gently nod to the words of the CEO; this condition included 3 listeners. Both videos were approximately 2 minutes long. The CEO was a male, American speaking person. The choice for a male CEO was justified by the literature on the stereotypical idea that the manager is usually male (Think manager,

think male; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Conger & Kanungo, 1998) and given the realities of the organizational world where only 6.6% of CEOs are female (Fortune 500, May 2019; Oakley, 2000).

Dependent Variables. After the manipulations, participants were asked to complete a series of scales. The first scale was the Organizational Identification scale from Randsley de Moura, Abrams, Retter, Gunnarsdottir, and Ando (2009). This is a 7-item Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). This scale was recoded so higher scores on the scale reflect higher OI. Participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement with some of the following items: "I feel strong ties with Flash Media" and "Flash Media is important to me", $\alpha = .93$ (the sixth item of the scale was reverse coded).

This scale was followed by the "Inclusion of the Others in Self" scale by Bergami and Bagozzi (2000). This scale was compounded of 7 pairs of circles that gradually overlap. The circle on the left represented "me" (the perceiver) and the circle on the right represented "Flash Media". Participants were asked to insert in the box below which pair of circles best represented their relationship with Flash Media. This scale measured a cognitive representation of the identification with the organization.

Turnover Intentions were measured using a scale by Roodt (2004; Bothma & Roodt, 2013). This six-item scale (e.g., "to what extent is your current job satisfying your personal needs?" and "how often do you look forward to another day at work?") measured the turnover intentions of the participants as working for the Flash Media company, $\alpha = .83$ (the item 2 and 6 of the scale were reverse coded). The scale was compounded of different responding options on a 5-point scale such as "never-always", "to no extent-to a large extent" and "highly unlikely-highly likely" (low points on this scale indicate lower turnover intentions). Lastly, a scale on Charismatic Leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1994) was used in order to control that the CEO was not perceived to be "too" charismatic (example of items The CEO is "an exciting speaker"; "has vision, often brings up ideas

about possibilities for the future"), α = 93. This scale measured how the leader was perceived to be charismatic on a 6-item Likert scale (1= very uncharacteristic, 6 = very characteristic). Finally, participants completed demographic measures and were fully debriefed.

Results and Discussion

Initial results

Initial data analysis from the Experiment 1 is summarized in table 3.1.

Table 3. 1 Intercorrelations, means and standard deviations for the main variables.

Variable	M	SD	2	3	4
1.Organizational Identification	3.60	.81	-.56**	.65**	.72**
2. Turnover Intentions	2.73	.75	-	-.57**	-.51**
3. Charisma	4.16	1.12	-	-	.57**
4. You/Flash Media	3.96	1.53	-	-	-

Note: Means (N = 158), condition is a dichotomous variable, 0 = no audience, 1 = audience, ** p<.01.

Independent sample t-tests were conducted to examine the effect of indirect contact on two dependent variables. Both t-tests revealed no significant effect of the independent variable on Organizational Identification (baseline M = 3.64, SD = .80, experimental M = 3.57, SD = .84, t (158) = -0.49, p = .623, d = .07) and Turnover Intentions (baseline M = 2.72, SD = 0.73, experimental M = 2.73, SD = 0.76, t = -0.02, p = .981, d = .01).

Another independent sample t-test was conducted to examine how charismatic the CEO was between two groups. The results showed that there is no significant difference between the groups (baseline M = 4.12, SD = 1.07, experimental M = 4.20, SD = 1.18, t (158) = -0.414, p = .678, d = .07). Although there is no significant effect on this dependent

variable too, from the mean values it can be observed that the CEO was perceived as "slightly charismatic".

The last variable that was analysed with a t-test, was the IOS scale where no significant difference was observed for the two groups (baseline M = 3.96, SD = 1.39, experimental M = 3.96, SD = 1.66, t (153) = -0.01, p = .989, d = 0). For this scale, participants were asked to indicate on seven pairs of circles how close do they feel with the organization, Flash Media. Although the difference was not significant between the groups, participants overall felt slightly inclusive toward the company as whole.

Discussion

According to the results from the first study, there was no significant difference between the two conditions on any of the dependent variables. The presence vs. absence of audience in the video with the CEO did not add or detract anything to Organizational Identification or Turnover Intentions. The lack of differences could be due to Experiment 1 being conducted online. This type of task required a certain level of attention (e.g., paying attention at the image and sound of the actors), yet this cannot be controlled through the online platform for recruitment. This indicates that participants may have not paid full attention to the video (or audience). This constitutes a limitation in the present experiment. It seems necessary for the participants not only to pay attention to the message of the leader and the leader himself but, most importantly, it was important that the participants in the experimental group pay attention to the audience. This limitation was addressed in Experiment 2.

Experiment 2

Method

In order for extended contact to be successful, it is important that participants perceive the existence of cross-group friendship between the leader and other employees. In the first experiment, this was not explicitly tested as I assumed it might be the case.

Therefore Experiment 2 addressed the limitation above with a manipulation check question. This type of question would be explicitly formed to understand if participants paid attention to the surroundings of the leader, specifically in condition 2, with the audience. Following the logic of the hypothesis in Experiment 1, I hypothesised that the presence of the audience would increase participants' identification through the idea of extended contact. Based on the extended contact, this experiment follows the logic: if participants identify with the group "Flash Media", seeing their "colleagues" in the video would result in higher identification with the Organization as a whole, through the leader's inspiring message. Therefore, in Experiment 2, it was necessary to check whether the participants did actually assimilate the whole scenario or if they were mostly paying attention to the leader and his message. Experiment 2 was a full replication of Experiment 1 with the additional manipulation statement and question. Therefore, identical variables and procedures were used.

Manipulation check

I hypothesised that the participants did not pay sufficient attention in the second condition when the audience was present. To mitigate against this, a manipulation check statement was used right before the video "Pay attention at the surroundings in the video as you will be asked some questions about it later". Additionally, after the main DV scales, a question "how many people were in the video?" was asked in order to check if participants actually did pay attention to the audience.

Participants

One hundred fifty-one people (113 females, 37 males; one did not indicate their demographic data) from the UK were recruited through Prolific Academic. The age range was from 18 to 64 years old (M = 36.61, SD = 12.61).

Design and Procedure

Dependent Variables. The dependent variables were the same as those used in experiment 1. The reliabilities of the scales were the following: Organizational Identification $\alpha = 0.83$, Turnover Intentions $\alpha = 0.94$ and Charisma $\alpha = 0.94$.

Results and Discussion

Initial Results

Firstly, intercorrelations, means and SDs are presented in the table below for the main variables.

Table 3. 2 Intercorrelations, means, SDs of the main variables.

Variable	M	SD	2	3	4
1.Organizational Identification	3.73	.88	-.57**	.60**	.67**
2. Turnover Intentions	2.60	.73	-	-.54**	-.55**
3. Charisma	4.27	1.13	-	-	.61**
4. You/Flash Media	3.96	1.53	-	-	-

Note: Means ($N = 152$). ** $p < .01$.

An independent t-test was conducted in order to check if there were any differences between the means of the two groups. For the dependent variable, Organizational Identification, there was no difference between the conditions after the manipulation check (baseline $M = 3.74$ $SD = 0.86$, experimental $M = 3.72$ $SD = 0.90$, $t(152) = -0.14$, $p = .885$, $d = .02$).

The t-test revealed no significant difference between two conditions for the variable Turnover Intentions (baseline $M = 2.56$ $SD = 0.74$, experimental $M = 2.64$ $SD = 0.73$, $t(152) = -0.68$, $p = .538$, $d = .11$). Analysis with t-tests for Inclusion of Other in Self scale showed a non-significant effect as well (baseline $M = 4.12$, $SD = 1.55$, experimental

M = 4.03, SD = 1.60, p = .721, d = .05). On the Charismatic Leadership Scale, t-test showed no significant differences between two conditions, baseline M = 4.28, SD = 1.15 in the, experimental M = 4.27, SD = 1.11, $t(150) = 0.06$, p = .953, d = 01.

Moreover, additional analysis followed the inclusion of manipulation check question compared that the answers from participants on the number of audience and the condition they were assigned matched correctly. None of the participants were excluded from the analysis because they all answered correctly the question and, this corroborated the results in Experiment 1, suggesting that participants' attention was not an issue in this experiment.

This second experiment tested the possibility that participants did not pay enough attention to the audience in Experiment 1 – however, no evidence that this was the case was found. While adjustments were made to the design of Experiment 2, there may have still been limitations. One such limitation may have been that it was not clear enough that the audience represented members of the organization (and therefore 'colleagues' with a shared identity to the participant). In order to address the limitations of the first two experiments, it was necessary to run an additional experiment where the relevance of the audience was manipulated. Testing this variable seemed necessary in order to understand whether participants' identification with the organization would change when audience group membership was known. The additional knowledge about group membership could explain previous lack of identification and suggest that salient group membership is necessary in the extended contact approach.

Experiment 3

Method

In the present experiment, the focus was on manipulating the relevance of the audience. In particular, the supposed audience was either from the general public (condition 1) or a group of Flash Media employees (condition 2). The idea to test whether relevance is important is derived from Extended Contact Theory (Wright et al., 1997, 2009). This theory suggests that knowledge of a member from an ingroup (Flash Media employees) has a close relationship with the member of the outgroup (leader), would result in overall more positive attitudes towards the outgroup as a whole (identification with Flash Media). Thus, while I expected less identification with the "general public" audience (Vezzali et al., 2014), close others like neighbours, family members, or co-workers function cognitively like the self, more than distant others (i.e., the leader with general public), (Meeusen, 2014; Tausch et al., 2011). Therefore, indirect contact with close others (CEO with members of Flash Media) should have a stronger effect than distant others (CEO with the general public).

Hypothesis 1: knowledge that the audience is from the *general public* vs. *Flash Media employees* will result in higher perceived similarity.

Hypothesis 2: knowledge that the audience is from the *general public* vs. *Flash Media employees* will result in increased OI and lower TI.

In order to test these hypotheses, the independent variable (general audience vs. Flash Media audience) was manipulated, while the rest of the design was identical to the previous two experiments.

Participants

One hundred fifty-nine participants decided to take part at this study through Prolific Academic (111 females, 46 males, two preferred not to indicate their gender). All

the participants were from the United Kingdom and they reported a mean age of M = 34.25, SD = 11.59. The participants received £1 in return for their participation.

Design and Procedure

Dependent variables. The dependent variables were the same as in the previous two studies. The reliabilities of the scales were all high: OI, 7 items α = .91, Turnover Intentions, 6 items α = .87 and, Charisma, 6 items α = .94.

Independent Variables. Participants were presented randomly with the condition where the CEO was addressing general public versus Flash Media employees.

Results and Discussion

Initial Results

Table 3. 3 Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for the primary measures.

Variable	M	SD	2	3	4	5
1.Organizational Identification	3.72	.84	-.66**	.70**	.66**	.07
2. Turnover Intentions	2.74	.88	-	-.64**	-.53**	-.04
3. Charisma	4.22	1.14	-	-	.42**	-.06
4. You/Flash Media	3.83	1.50	-	-	-	-.13

Note: Means (N = 159). Scale OI has recoded values 1-5 (5 = strongly agree, 1= strongly disagree). TI 1-5, (1= strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree), Charisma 1-6 (1 = very uncharacteristic, 6 = very characteristic). You/Flash Media 1-7 (1= least overlapping circles, 7 = most overlapping circles). Condition 0= general audience, 1 = Flash Media audience, ** p <.01.

For the first dependent variable, Organizational Identification, a t-test showed no significant effect between the two conditions (general audience $M = 3.72$, $SD = .88$, Flash Media audience, $M = 3.61$, $SD = .79$, $t\,(157) = 0.82$, $p = .414$, $d = .13$).

A non-significant effect through t-test analysis was observed for the variable Turnover Intentions (general audience, $M = 2.79$, $SD = 0.89$, Flash Media audience, $M = 2.71$, $SD = 0.87$, $t(157) = 0.55$, $p = .583$, $d = .09$.

The pattern of non-significance was observed also for the Inclusion of the Other in Self or Charismatic leadership scale. For the variable IOS, the t-test reported: general audience $M = 4.04$, $SD = 1.38$, Flash Media audience, $M = 3.65$, $SD = 1.59$, $t(149) = 1.61$, $p = .110$, $d = .26$.

The t-test for the Charismatic Leadership scale showed: general audience $M = 4.29$, $SD = 1.20$, Flash Media audience $M = 4.16$, $SD = 1.08$, $t(157) = 0.71$, $p = .479$, $d = .26$.

From the results of this study, I didn't observe any significant differences regardless of whether the CEO was addressing the general public as the audience or employees of Flash Media. The change to the manipulation did not affect the attitudes of the participants on either outcome Organizational Identification or Turnover Intentions. Therefore, a further possible limitation that could explain the non-significant results was investigated in the next experiment. Although Prolific Academic participants come from a quite diverse sample, it could be possible that the majority of our participants have found it difficult to imagine themselves in this specific organizational setting because of their limited experience in the workplace or being part of a large business corporation (Palan & Schitter, 2018). In fact, Prolific Academic, allows researchers to use the "pre-screening" option in order to select a specific pool of participants. In order to address this limitation, in the fourth experiment, it was necessary to select a specific sample of participants.

Experiment 4

Method

The fourth experiment aimed to verify if the participants' employee status was the main reason there were no significant results in the previous studies. Therefore, I added a pre-screening option through Prolific Academic. This online software permits researchers to select from a variety of different options, which in this case we selected the following options: *employer type: employee of a for-profit company or business or of an individual, for wages, salary, or commissions; employee of a not-for-profit, tax-exempt, or charitable organization; local government employee (city, county, etc.); state government employee; federal government employee.*

Participants

One hundred and fifty-two participants took part in this study (81 females, 71 males). The mean age of the participants was $M = 36.64$, $SD = 9.75$. All the participants were British and recruited through Prolific Academic. They were awarded £1 for their participation.

Design and Procedure

Dependent and independent variables were the same as in Experiment 3. The independent variable was manipulated (general audience vs. Flash Media audience) and the previously used dependent variables were measured. Reliabilities of the scales were as follows: Organizational Identification $\alpha = .93$, Turnover Intentions $\alpha = .84$ and, Charisma $\alpha = .93$.

Results and Discussion

Initial Results

Table 3. 4 Means, SDs and intercorrelations of main variables.

Variable	M	SD	2	3	4	5
1.Organizational Identification	3.59	.83	-.55**	.60**	.66**	.07
2. Turnover Intentions	2.82	.75	-	-.53**	-.50**	.05
3. Charisma	4.04	1.11	-	-	.64**	-.12
4. You/Flash Media	4.10	1.50	-	-	-	-.00

Note: Means (N = 152), ** p <.01.

An independent sample t-test was performed to measure the difference between the two conditions. From the results on the dependent variable Organizational Identification it can be observed that there was no significant effect between the two conditions: general audience M = 3.66, SD = 0.81, Flash Media audience, M = 3.54, SD = 0.84, t (150) = -0.90, p= .368, d = .16.

The t-test for Turnover intentions showed as well that there was no significant effect on this variable (general audience M = 2.78, SD = 0.78, Flash Media audience, M = 2.85, SD = 0.71, t (150)= -0.58, p = .562, d = .09.

As in previous studies, Inclusion of the Other in Self was measured through the graphical representation from Bergami and Bagozzi (2000), the t-test reported a non-significant effect: general audience M = 4.10, SD = 1.55, Flash Media audience M = 4.09, SD = 1.45, t (140) = 0.03, p = .974, d = 0.

The t-test results for the Charismatic Leadership scale revealed no significant difference for the two groups, general audience M = 4.17, SD = 1.16, Flash Media audience M = 3.91, SD = 1.05, t (150) = 1.46, p = .147, d = .23.

This study aimed to understand whether making participants' employability status more relevant to the experimental manipulation would lead to predicted differences. I hypothesised that individuals who had previous organizational experience with a CEO would be more likely to engage with the manipulation. However, this was not found to be the case. Although this study investigated behaviour in an organizational context, this experiment may have been limited in representing the usual type of communication inside organizations. Even when targeting a specific type of sample, we didn't obtain significant results. This suggests that the characteristics of the sample may not be the main limitation in this experiment.

General Discussion

This research aimed to explore alternative ways to direct contact to promote Organizational Identification through leader communications. Based on previous literature, indirect contact as a form of positive mental simulation with the outgroup should be a valid approach when improving attitudes toward the outgroup as whole (Dovidio et al., 2011; Vezzali et al., 2014). Moreover, recent research from Meleady and Crisp (2017) suggests that Indirect Contact can be used in the organizational context in order to promote positive attitudes toward the leader and increase Organizational Identification. Although the present research is based on this strong theoretical rationale, it is not successful in achieving the predicted improvements in OI. The idea of using a video was based on the theory of Extended and Vicarious Contact, where the perceiver observed contact or no contact between the CEO and Flash Media employees. While doing this, we expected an increase in Organizational Identification with the in-group (Flash Media) through the outgroup (CEO). From the results of the first experiment we can see that watching a video of a CEO with or without an audience did not have any significant effect on the dependent variables. Our first consideration following these results was that participants did not pay sufficient attention to the video. Therefore, a second experiment explored whether

cognitive attention was crucial in this case. A simple manipulation check question was introduced in Experiment 2 in order to test this hypothesis. The results showed however, no significant differences among the two groups.

The third experiment aimed to understand whether the relevance of the audience could have an effect on participants' identification. In particular, asking participants to imagine that they work for Flash Media, when presented with the audience condition, would result in identification with Flash Media employees and, as an additional result, identification with the Organization as a whole (following the logic of Extended contact approach). However, these predicted results were not obtained. Finally, a fourth experiment was conducted to check if participants' employment status (real-life organizational experience) was one of the conditions necessary for this indirect contact experience. As seen from the results, participants' employee status did not play any additional role in explaining the results.

In order to understand why these experiments did not yield the expected results, it is necessary to focus on the limitations. Arguably, the main limitation of these studies was the materials used. Specifically, the use of a video which displayed a relatively young CEO with a few members of the company could have been perceived as unrealistic. If we think of some of the world-known CEOs, like Steve Jobs or Satya Nadella, these leaders are usually in front of a big crowd of people and they are the main actors at the scene.

Another limitation may be the difficulty of the imagination task. In particular, it might have been difficult for the participants to authentically imagine themselves working for a fictitious company. Additionally, the time frame for them to process and elaborate on this imaginary task was very limited. The imagery task (organizational vignette) was reinforced by the video; however, this might have not been sufficient, especially if the leader was not perceived as credible or if they did not identify strongly with the organization as a whole. The starting argument for these studies was that big companies

usually allow limited contact, especially with the CEO, therefore, this approach should have been a good alternative for the employees. In particular, if we imagine the usual organizational scenario, some of the employees could have been fairly new and never seen the CEO, as in the present research. Following this logic, it could be argued that this approach is not successful for employees who are new or who are not familiar with the CEO. In the opposite case, maybe a video approach could be beneficial for a CEO who is already well known and for employees who are part of the company for a longer period. In future research, it would be interesting, to use this approach with a "real" CEO and test whether visual communication could benefit the organization in terms of extra-role behaviours.

Based on this analysis, it can be concluded that the main limitations in these experiments were the materials used. It was therefore necessary to develop materials that were as similar to real world experiences of employees as possible. For example, an alternative is to use written communication style (e.g., email) rather than the video, since the use of emails is still the predominant way of communicating in every organizational context. In the next chapter, in order to address the limitations in the present studies, new materials that adopted an email presentation mode are described. These experiments again addressed the main research question: What are the alternative approaches that a leader can use in order to be influential and increase greater identification with the employees and the organization?

Chapter 4

Enhancing Organizational Identification through Differential use of Personal and Collective pronouns in Leader Communications

Abstract

In this chapter, I report three experiments that explored how collectivistic or individualistic leader rhetoric through on-line communication can influence followers' identification with the organization. Participants were recruited online and presented with a fictitious scenario of the CEO debriefing the employees on the company future plans. The independent variable was a manipulation of pronoun use "I" vs. "we" through an e-mail sent on behalf of the CEO. I hypothesised that the Organizational Identification would be higher in the collectivistic condition, following predictions derived from Social Identity Theory. In contrast to predictions, results revealed an increase in organizational identification and lower turnover intentions when individualistic vs. collectivistic rhetoric characterised leader communication. Experiment 6 tested whether Personal Need for Structure and Collectivism-Individualism (Experiment 7) moderated this effect; however, no significant effects were observed.

Introduction

Most of the worldwide population nowadays relies on internet communication such as social media platforms, interactive chats and e-mails (Schumann, Klein, Douglas, & Hewstone, 2017). For example, people worldwide send 93 billion emails daily (Internet Live Stats - Internet Usage, Social Media Statistics, internetlivestats.com). Today, every company uses emails in order to exchange information within and outside the business place. Managers, leaders and subordinates' communication creates a virtual structure that enables group support (Huang, Wei, Watson, & Tan, 2003). The widespread use of telecommunications has permitted an increase in employees' use of electronic rather than face-to-face communication enabling them to work both online in the workplace and when away from the office (Hill, Kang, & Seo, 2014).

With this in mind, it is important to create alternative and accessible tools in order to promote better leader communication strategies. Research from the intergroup domain suggests that internet communication has positive effects especially in creating positive intergroup contact between groups. In particular, online interaction allows communication between people without boundaries. For example, virtual communication has been used as a conflict reconciliation program by Amichai-Hamburger and McKenna (2006) in the Middle East. These researchers emphasised that in different contexts organizers can find it difficult to meet all together in one common place, which results in expensive travel and can be time-consuming. Participants in the meetings could only be those who can afford time and expense, or live in the proximity of meeting point, which limits the face-to-face contact. In the organizational context, examples of limited contact can be the case of a CEO who does not necessarily have face-to-face contact with other employees and relies mostly on the virtual type of communication - a characteristic in particular of larger organisations where the sheer number of employees, distributed over a large geographic area, prevents face-to-face interaction. Given that leaders have no choice but to engage in

online communication, it becomes necessary to understand what aspects of those communications impinge, or enhance, the effectiveness of the message at exerting social influence. The present research examined whether the use of particular pronouns had an effect on the influence exerted by leader communications on organizational identification.

Leader communication has been often studied as a critical factor in obtaining employee's commitment, loyalty and improving performance through motivation (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2002). How the leader communicates to the followers is extremely important since it influences their behaviour and attitudes which results in different organizational outcomes (e.g., turnover, trust). How the leader can achieve positive outcomes in the organizations and when using indirect contact is the main research question in the present research. Therefore, in the following section, I outline the literature on leadership communication to understand how leaders can shape followers' perceptions, behaviours or attitudes, followed by the specific use of individualistic vs. collectivistic rhetoric styles.

Leader communication

Leaders are usually appointed in order to permit communication with purpose at all levels: managerial, line supervisors, chief executives, etc. The job of a leader is to use oratory skills for different purposes, such as inspiring, motivating and, influencing the group they lead. Barker (2001) suggests that different leadership styles have specific repercussions on organizational communication. Knowing how to manage the leadership style and create the perfect mix of communication media is one of the crucial elements for the leaders to have impact on the followers (Urbanowicz, 2004). However, communicating inside the organization is not often easy considering that usual face-to-face conversation relies on use of words (7%), tone of the voice (38%) and non-verbal visual cues (55%) (Urbanowicz, 2004).

Moreover, leader communication has been defined as an important element in obtaining different positive outcomes such as employee motivation and increasing performance (Levering & Moskowitz, 1998), employees' commitment, organizational identification, trust and, turnover intentions (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2002). Sullivan's (1988) so-called *Motivating Language Theory* is a theory that elucidates a leader-subordinate communication framework. Three main factors are considered as having crucial effects on followers. Sullivan hypothesised that direction giving, empathy and meaning-making language would have independent effects on job performance, turnover intentions and motivation. However, subsequent work showed that the combination of these three elements would have a greater positive effect on worker's outcome (Rowley Mayfield, Mayfield, & Kopf, 1998). Giving direction is important in clarifying job duties, goals and different responsibilities while empathy is essential in creating a leader-subordinate interpersonal bond. Lastly, the meaning-making language is necessary in order to allow different norms and expectations that shape worker's orientation according to different workplaces. Barrett (2014) translates this into words of the Greek philosopher, Aristotle who defines *Logos*, *Pathos* and, *Ethos* as three main types of communication. Logos is referred to the logic of the message, Pathos to the emotion and lastly but, most importantly, Ethos refers to the credibility and authenticity that can be transmitted through leader's rhetoric. The idea that good leader communication has several beneficial effects is not new and, in particular, in the organizational context results in employees' job satisfaction and greater intention to stay (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2007; Rowley Mayfield et al., 1998). Importantly this research has provided important insights into leader communication and highlighted how important is leaders' ability to give direct orders in order to obtain positive employee behaviour.

In this chapter, I focus on understanding what kind of language could promote workers' well-being and related positive outcomes such as higher commitment and trust

in supervisor. In particular, in the following, I address specifically the use of personal or collectivistic rhetoric and how this type of communication can affect followers' behaviour.

Leaders' Collectivistic and Individualistic rhetoric

"The so called 'I' is merely a unique combination of partially conflicting corporate's we'."- Erving Goffman

Language is one of the major elements in the social world through which we perceive where we belong and how to act. As explained in previous chapters, people categorize themselves in terms of different groups through the process defined as self-categorization (Turner, 1987). In this way, people define themselves in terms of in-group norms and when doing so they distinguish themselves from the outgroup. One way of doing this is through labels and names. Examples of this is the use of collective pronouns such as "we" or "us" that imply the idea of in-group (Perdue, Dovidio, Gurtman, & Tyler, 1990). Researchers have shown that over time the use of in-group words results in eventual positive connotation associated to those, while in comparison other pronouns such as "they, them" get associated with negative connotations (Brewer, 1979). Following this logic and how Social Identity Theory supports collectiveness, promoting a shared identity ("us") seems beneficial also through rhetoric. Moreover, this theory suggests that leaders as able orators, can promote the shared identity and gain support. In this way, leaders are seen as acting not in terms of "I" but, more importantly, in terms of collective and shared identity, i.e., "we" (Haslam & Platow, 2001). Research from Hornsey, Blackwood and O'Brien (2005) describes the pros and cons of the use of collective rhetorical style. They argue that the use of collective language helps reduce uncertainty in the group and that the group advocate promotes the message for everybody. Moreover, when it comes to political strategies such as influencing the majority, they suggest that collective language can be used in order to reduce uncertainty, promote unity and solidarity. Another reason that they

point out is important to rely on collective language is to maintain commitment inside the group by the leader. However, research from Hornsey et al. (2005) suggests that collective rhetorical style of the speaker could be dependent on the degree to which the audience identifies with the group.

Additionally, empirical evidence shows that when leaders embrace this idea of shared identity, they are more favourably evaluated and attributed higher levels of charisma (Kraus, Ahearne, Lam, & Wieseke, 2012; Platow, Knippenberg, Haslam, Knippenberg, & Spears, 2006; Wieseke, Ahearne, Lam, & Dick, 2009). Research from Steffens and Haslam (2013) suggests that leaders who use "we"-referencing language had more success in elections compared to leaders who focused on individualistic rhetoric. However, this research has focused on analysing speeches from a wide range of leaders over different years. The present research will focus on the manipulation of the use of pronouns in the organizational context. This logic links with the previous described theory on prototypicality of the leader who is able to promote the interests of his/her group, embodying its prototype. When the leader is highly prototypical of the group s/he represents, then research suggests s/he does not have to rely on the use of particular rhetoric but, usually the fact that they are prototypical already creates higher chances to be supported by the in-group members. The present research will test the manipulated rhetoric style in order to understand if current literature on communication and leader prototypicality could be supported.

The Present Research

In the following three experiments I explored how leader's different use of collective versus individualistic rhetoric affects followers' evaluations and perceptions. In line with the arguments and theories explained above a) the Social Identity Theory (which suggests the importance of collective identity) and b) leader use of rhetoric (which suggests that collectivistic language elicits greater support) I hypothesised that when the

leader uses collective rhetoric (vs. individualistic) this will result in greater Organizational Identification and lower Turnover Intentions (H1). In order to test this hypothesis materials and methods will be described in the following section.

Experiment 5

Method

The present experiment aims to test how e-mail communications can influence organizational identification, leader and organizational similarity and, turnover intentions.

Participants

The number of participants was determined through a power analysis on G-Power with desired power .80 and medium-sized effect d = .50 for a dichotomous variable type of design (Maccallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996). One-hundred and fifty-three participants (45 males, 107 females) took part in this experiment. The mean age for this sample is M = 33.73 and SD = 11.55. All the participants were British and recruited through the online platform, *Prolific Academic*. They were recruited online and awarded £1 for what was described to them as an imagery task with the leader.

Design and procedure

The Experiment was planned and designed through the online platform, Qualtrics. This platform allows researchers to design their studies and run them online and/or on portable devices (Qualtrics, 2014). Participants were assigned to one of two conditions through the randomized option through this online software.

Independent variables. As in previous experiments (see Chapter 3), an organizational vignette was presented to participants (Meleady & Crisp, 2017). This vignette describes the fictitious company "Flash Media" that participants are asked to imagine working for. Eventually, in this vignette, I asked participants to imagine that the CEO of the company has sent them an e-mail to read carefully.

Participants were randomly presented with an email where the CEO addresses them in individualistic vs. collectivistic rhetoric. The e-mail content was inspired by the speech used in the videos in Chapter 3. The e-mail sent on the behalf of CEO was based on inspirational and positive rhetoric addressing the followers on the future of the company. Example of sentences used: "The achievements of the company are due to passion and drive to make things better. *I* (vs. *we*) know that *my* (vs. *our*) team will work tirelessly...", "*My* (vs. *our*) strategy is to embed in the organization capacities..." (see Appendix B for full description). Pronouns "I" and "we" were equally distributed throughout the text per e-mail. The gender of the CEO was male, and his fictitious name was Bruce Henrikson. The choice for the male gender can be justified in terms of the prototypical and stereotypical idea of think-manager think-male (TMTM) association (Agars, 2004).

Dependent Variables. Participants were asked to complete different dependent measures. As in the previous experiments reported in Chapter 3, participants were asked to complete an *Organizational Identification* scale (Randsley de Moura et al., 2009). Followed by four *Inclusion of the Other in Self* scales (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000), that measured the closeness between the participant and, respectively: organization, CEO, other employees and the distance between the CEO and the organization itself. Lastly, Turnover Intention scale by Roodt (2004) and, Charisma (Conger & Kanungo, 1994) were included as well. Respective reliabilities of scales: $\alpha = .82$ for OI (7 items), $\alpha = .81$ Turnover Intentions (6 items) and, $\alpha = .93$ for Charisma (6 items). Participants' demographic information was recorded, and they were debriefed at the end.

Results and Discussion

Initial results in table 4.1. show means, standard deviations and intercorrelations of main variables.

An independent sample t-test was conducted in order to test whether individualistic vs. collectivistic rhetoric would have an effect on participants identification with the fictional organization and their turnover intentions.

For the Organizational Identification scale an independent sample t-test reported no significant difference between the two conditions ("I": $M = 3.79$, $SD = .91$; "we": $M = 3.75$, $SD = .74$, $t(152) = -0.25$, $p = .800$, $d = .04$). Participants did not report greater organizational identification in the collectivistic condition as expected and, participants indicated almost identical mean results in the individualistic condition.

The independent sample t-test for Turnover Intentions showed that there was a significant difference between the two conditions. Participants reported less Turnover Intentions in the condition "I" than "we" ("I": $M = 2.60$, $SD = .72$; "we" $M = 2.97$, $SD = .79$, $t\ (152) = -3.28$, $p = .001$, $d = .49$). These findings were in the opposite direction to what was hypothesised (see Table 4.2). When the leader was using individualistic rhetoric, participants were more likely to stay committed to the organization.

The t-test for Charisma reported no difference between two conditions in perceived charisma in the rhetoric of the leader ("I": $M = 4.43$, $SD = 1.24$; "we" $M = 4.13$, $SD = 1.06$, $t(152) = 1.62$, $p = .108$, $d = .26$). A leader who is promoting collective goals would have been expected to be more charismatic; however, in this experiment, there was no difference between an individualistic or collectivistic leader (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). However, it could be argued, given the mean point of this scale (i.e., 3), that the leader was perceived as quite charismatic on the average in both conditions.

Table 4. 1 Means, SDs and intercorrelations of the key variables.

	Variable	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	Organizational Ident.	3.77	.83	.71**	.57**	.39**	.15	.64**	-.59**
2.	You/FM	4.04	1.16	-	.75**	.60**	.32**	.48**	-.53**
3.	You/BH	2.88	1.50	-	-	.54**	.26**	.44**	-.54**
4.	You/Others	4.28	1.47	-	-	-	.30**	.28**	-.36**
5.	FM/BH	5.67	1.67	-	-	-	-	.24**	-.19*
6.	Charisma	4.28	1.55	-	-	-	-	-	-.49**
7.	Turnover	2.79	.73	-	-	-	-	-	-

Note. Means ($N = 149$). The condition was coded 0= "I" and 1= "we". BH stands for Bruce Henrikson the CEO and, FM is the company, Flash Media.

* $p<.01$, * $p<.05$.

For the Inclusion of the Other in Self (IOS) measure, there were 4 scales that explored identification and similarity in terms of inclusion of the other in self for the following pairs: you-Organisation (YO), you-Leader (YL), you-Followers (YF) and, Organisation-Leader (OL), see Table 4.2 for the Means, SDs and t-test values.

For the first pair (You-Organisation), a t-test reported greater closeness in the condition "I" vs. "we": "I" $M = 4.44$, $SD = 1.51$, "we" $M = 3.66$, $SD = 1.32$, $t(147) = 3.36$, $p = .001$, $d = .55$. For You-Leader variable, a t-test reported greater closeness with the CEO in the condition "I" $M = 3.43$, $SD = 1.57$; "we" $M = 2.35$, $SD = 1.22$, $t\ (139) = 4.71$, $p = .001$, $d = .77$. Participants also felt closer to the other employees in the you-Followers condition, where a t-test analysis reported: "I": $M = 4.68$, $SD = 1.51$; "we": $M = 3.88$, $SD = 1.33$, $t\ (151) = 3.49$, $p = .001$, $d = .56$. Lastly, also the closeness between Organization-Leader (OL), was significantly different between two conditions, t-test reported: "I" $M = 6.05$, $SD = 1.50$; "we" $M = 5.30$, $SD = 1.75$, $t\ (147) = 2.86$, $p = .005$, $d = .46$. All of these differences were in the opposite direction as to what was hypothesized.

Table 4. 2 Inclusion of the Other in Self and Turnover.

	"I"		"We"		
	M	SD	M	SD	*t*-test
YO	4.44	1.51	3.66	1.32	3.36***
YL	3.43	1.57	2.35	1.22	4.71***
YF	4.68	1.51	3.88	1.33	3.49***
OL	6.05	1.50	5.30	1.75	2.86***
Turnover	2.60	.72	2.97	.79	-3.28***

Note: Means *(N* = 149), ****p*<.001. The IOS scale was 1 (distant) to 7 (complete inclusion of the other in self). Turnover scale ranged from 1= low turnover to 5=high turnover. Where, YO= you-organization, YL= you-leader, YF= you-followers, and OL=organization-leader.

Exploratory mediational analysis.

Given the results on the t-test and the fact that Turnover and Closeness revealed significant differences for the two conditions, I computed an additional post-hoc analysis where I hypothesised that the dependent variable (turnover) could be mediated by the similarity (Inclusion of the Other in Self). In order to explore IOS as a mediator, I computed a new variable IOS that is compounded as the mean value of other variables YO, YL, YF, OL together. The mediation analysis has been performed through PROCESS macro Version 3 (Hayes, 2017). Hayes (2017) PROCESS macro for SPSS (model 4) was used to conduct the analysis. Based on bootstrapping with 5000 resamples, the mean estimate for indirect effect was B = .247, SE = .074, 95% CI [.120, .408], p < .001. As zero did not fall within the confidence interval, the results suggest significant mediation. Full path estimates are displayed in Fig. 4.1.

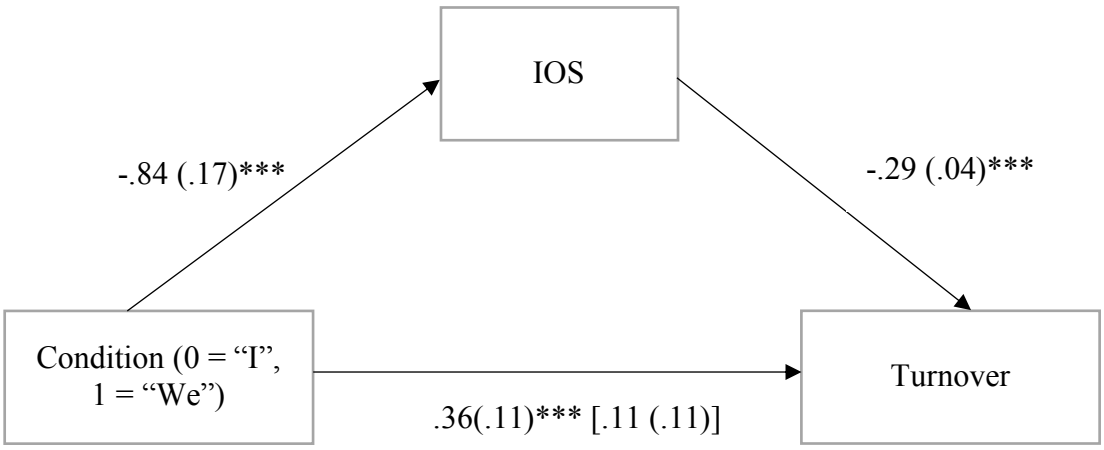

Figure 4. 1 Mediational model of the relationship between condition and Turnover through the IOS.

Note: Path estimates represent unstandardized coefficients. Standard errors presented in parentheses. The direct effect after controlling for the mediator is shown in brackets. *p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01.

Previous literature suggests that when people categorize themselves in terms of "we", they are more inclusive, and this results in more positive connotation of in-group language (Maas & Arcuri, 1996). Previous research has also showed how inclusive

language promoted by the leader would have positive effects on followers (e.g., solidarity, Maas & Clark, 1984) or in political context, we-referencing leaders would have greater success in elections (Steffens & Haslam, 2013). In the present study, a significant difference was observed between two conditions "I" vs. "we" for Turnover Intentions and Organizational Identification in the graphical form ("Inclusion of the Other in Self") – but opposite to what was predicted based on previous work. Moreover, participants when imagining working for the fictitious company, Flash Media, they felt closer to the Organization, the CEO (Bruce Henrikson) and other employees of the company. Lastly, this closeness was mostly perceived between the CEO and the company when the participants were in the condition "I". According to these results, in this specific context, a leader who promotes individualistic rhetoric would have more success in terms of extra-role behaviour such as Turnover Intentions. Moreover, additional exploratory analysis revealed the importance of perceived similarity through the Inclusion of the Other in Self scales. In particular, the results showed a fully mediated effect by the similarity on turnover. These results could suggest that the perceived inclusiveness or similarity is a necessary factor in the organizational context in order to increase the commitment in the company. In other words, these results could support previous research that suggests that identification with the organization or ingroup members is related to turnover (De Moura, Abrams, Retter, Gunnarsdottir, & Ando, 2009; Van Dick et al., 2004). However, this effect seems accentuated under a leader who is promoting individualistic rhetoric.

Intergroup Contact research has found that when there are groups who have divergent opinions or preconceptions about each other, accentuating similarities can reduce bias (Dovidio, Love, Schellhaas, & Hewstone, 2017; Gaertner & Dovidio, 2000). However, sometimes, the activation of a common ingroup identity can lead to the opposite effect (Hornsey & Hogg, 2000; Jetten et al., 2001). In particular, when there is high ingroup identification the ingroup might feel threatened by the outgroup and therefore

allow bias. In terms of the present findings, it could be the case that some of the participants were high identifiers (with e.g., organization) and when the superordinate category of collectiveness was being activated (through the "we"-based rhetoric), this was perceived as threatening and therefore the participants expressed a preference for a distinct leader who was promoting the individuality through "I"- based rhetoric. This idea is explored in the next experiment.

Experiment 6

The aim of Experiment 6 was to explore possible reasons for the findings of Experiment 5, using a moderation variable, Personal Need for Structure (PNS) (H1). From the results of Experiment 5, it was inferred that participants preferred an individualistic leader who promoted self-centred rhetoric, suggesting a distanced approach to the followers and therefore a preference for an implied hierarchical structure of the organization. In particular, this preference for an organized world could be measured at the level of individual differences. A measure that refers to this is called Personal Need for Structure (PNS; Thompson et al., 1989). PNS refers to the personal need for a more or less structured world. This desire can have several implications on behaviour and cognition. Differences in need for structure result in different ways of processing the world. For example, individuals high in PNS, tend to organize social and non-social information in simpler ways, usually applying scripts and stereotypes. PNS has been explored in different studies and showed that this construct not only affects individual's behaviour as suggested by Neuberg and Jason (1993), such as assignment management but also, in stereotype formation, this particular cognitive style plays a crucial role (Schmid, Hewstone, Tausch, Cairns, & Hughes, 2009).

Recent research by Leicht, Crisp and DeMoura (2013) has explored how PNS can predict leadership preference. In particular, this study showed how the preference for prototypical vs. non-prototypical leaders varied in participants based on their need for

organized and stable environment. Participants high in PNS are overall more likely to use the heuristic way of thinking, therefore, access the information in the easy and fast way, which results in the preference for a prototypical leader, the one that has clearly defined characteristics that are cognitively salient and accessible.

Based on this research, in Experiment 6, it was necessary to explore this socio-cognitive variable to test whether the preference for one type of leader rhetoric or another was due to the moderated effect of need for structure. In particular, in the present experiment it was hypothesized that PNS will moderate the Organizational Identification for "I" vs. "we" condition. In other words, participants who are high in PNS would prefer a leader who uses collectivistic rhetoric as this type of leader is usually considered as prototypical. Therefore, following the line of research by Leicht et al., (2013), I will test the following

Hypothesis: Participants high in PNS will prefer collectivistic rhetoric while participants low in PNS will prefer Individualistic rhetoric.

Method

The present study is a replication of Experiment 5 with the additional moderator PNS. The methodology is identical as in the previous experiment. The moderator was introduced before the manipulation of IV. This experiment was also advertised online through *Prolific Academic* and the participants received £1 in return for their participation.

Participants

A power analysis was performed a priori with the program *G*Power* (Erdfelder, Faul & Buchner, 1996), keeping as the desired level of power 1 - β = .80 and α= .05 (Cohen, 1988), therefore 152 participants were recruited for this research. Specifically, 45 were male and 107 females. The mean age of this sample was M = 34.77, SD = 11.73. All of the participants were British as this option was consistent as in previous studies.

Design and Procedure

The design was as in Experiment 5, participants were randomly assigned to one of the two conditions.

Independent variables. The manipulation of the independent variable used here was as in Experiment 5, participants could be either randomly assigned to the condition where the leader was using individualistic vs. collectivistic rhetoric.

Dependent Variables. The Dependent Variables were also the same as in Experiment 5.

In the present experiment, a new variable, PNS, was used as moderator. PNS is a scale developed by Neuberg and Newson (1993). This scale is compounded of 12 items, (e.g., "it upsets me to go into a situation without knowing what I can expect from it.") with 6-item Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 2=moderately disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4=slightly agree, 5=moderately agree, 6=strongly agree). This scale was included in the questionnaire right before the IV.

Finally, participants' demographic information was recorded, and they were fully debriefed.

Results and Discussion

Initial results

Reliabilities, means, SDs, and inter-correlation of all variables are shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4. 3 Means and SDs for main variables.

	Variable	α	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4
1	Organizational Identification	.83	3.82	.73	-.50**	.50**	.03
2	Turnover	.84	2.73	.80	-	-.38**	.04
3	Charisma	.91	4.63	.90	-	-	.07
4	PNS	.86	3.93	.73	-	-	-

Note: Means (N = 152) rating from 1 to 5 (OI, Turnover), 1 to 6 (Charisma and PNS).

** p<.01

Moderation analysis for Personal Need for Structure and Outcome Variables

In order to explore the moderation hypothesis, moderation analysis with Process (Hayes, 2017) has been conducted to test whether high or low PNS in participants moderates the Organizational Identification. Predictor variables were included, the interaction term was calculated and then the moderation was conducted through Model 1 (Hayes, 2017). The interaction between PNS and condition was not significant, $R^2 = .006$, $F(3, 148) = 0.30$, $p=.513$. Main effect for condition on OI was $b = .01$, $t = .14$, $p = .886$ wherein the main effect of PNS on OI was $b = -.04$, $t = .43$, $p = .666$. Insignificant results were observed for the interaction effect therefore, moderation was not present.

Identical analysis has been conducted for Turnover Intentions there was also a non-significant interaction between PNS and condition, $R^2 = .004$, $F(3, 148) = 0.11$, $p = .555$. The main effect of condition on Turnover was $b = .02$, $t = .12$, $p = .897$ wherein the main effect of PNS on Turnover was $b = -04$, $t = .38$, $p = .666$.

Independent t-test analysis for the main dependent variables

The independent t-test examined the difference in means between the two conditions. No significant difference was obtained for any of the dependent variables. In particular, for Organizational Identification the t-test showed no significant differences for the two conditions ("I" $M= 3.83$, $SD = .72$; "we" $M =3.81$, $SD =.75$, $t(150)= -.25$, $p = .807$, $d = .04$). For the Turnover Intentions, the t-test reported no significant difference as observed in the previous experiment ("I" $M= 2.73$, $SD = .83$; "we" $M =2.74$, $SD =.79$, $t(150)= -.13$, $p= .897$, $d = .01$). A non-significant effect was reported through the t-test also for the variable Charisma, where on average the leader was rated charismatic ("I" $M= 4.67$, $SD = .94$, "we" $M =4.58$, $SD =.86$, $t (149)= .59$, $p = .556$, $d = .10$).

For the four Inclusion of the Other in Self (IOS) there was no significant difference for the two conditions as observed before in Experiment 5. For the relationship "you-Flash

Media" the t-test showed: "I" M= 4.42, SD = 1.25, "we" M =4.19, SD =1.31, t(144)= 1.10, p = .273, d = .18. On average lower means were observed for the relationship with the CEO (Bruce Henrikson) and no significant differences were observed with the t-test: "I" M= 3.29, SD = .1.46, "we" M =2.97, SD =1.44, t(145)= .75, p = .190, d = .22.

The closeness perceived in terms of identification with the "other employees" was not significant for the two conditions, in particular, the t-test reported: "I" M= 4.71, SD = 1.44, "we" M =4.35, SD =1.34, t(146)= 1.60, p = .112, d = .26. On the average the higher perceived closeness was for the pair "Flash Media-Bruce Henrikson" although this difference was minimum and, according to the t-test, non-significant in two conditions: "I" M= 5.90, SD = 1.46, "we" M =5.79, SD =1.27, t(145)= .51, p = .610, d = .08.

In the present experiment, I could not reject the null hypothesis relating to Personal Need for Structure moderates. It can be concluded that individual differences in PNS did not moderate here the preference for a leader. In particular, contrary to the hypothesis, the preference for individualistic rhetoric could not be corroborated as in previous research through this type of variable. However, given the interesting results in Experiment 5, it seems pertinent to explore further if some other variables could explain follower preference for a certain type of leader rhetoric. The next experiment tested an additional moderator that could explain the observed effect.

Experiment 7

In Experiment 6, PNS did not moderate the preference and closeness to the individualistic vs. collectivistic leader. In particular, since the rhetoric used in the experiment was individualistic vs. collectivistic this preference could be due to cultural differences at the individual level in terms of individualism and collectivism's attitudes. These attitudes are usually described at the cultural level, where people tend to value harmony at an individual or group level (Singelis, Dharm, Bhawuk, & Gelfand, 1995). For example, individualists tend to see themselves as independent and have necessity to

value their personal attitudes and act independently of others, while collectivistic people have a tendency to act in terms of social groups and are interdependent to other members of the group. In other words, individualist people are "me"-oriented while the collectivistic individuals are more "we"-oriented (Singelis et al., 1995). Usually, this difference can be observed at cultural/national level. For example, western cultures, such as Australia and the United States are high in individualism, moderately Denmark, while the Asian countries are high in collectivism, such as China and South Korea, and moderately Brazil (Adler et al., 1992).

The newly proposed horizontal/vertical scale was due to the lack of measures that highlight the different preference for hierarchical vs. more equal societies (Triandis, 1995). Therefore, the distinction between vertical and horizontal societies where, the vertical relationships end in accepting inequality and a hierarchical structure with particular attention to social rank, while the horizontal societies promote equality and equal status for everybody. Both horizontal and vertical relationship exist in individualism and collectivism perspectives. Therefore, according to Sivadas, Bruvold, and Nelson (2008), it is necessary to consider four dimensions of individualism/collectivism scale: horizontal individualism (HI), horizontal collectivism (HC), vertical individualism (VI) and, vertical collectivism (VC). These four dimensions will be explored in Experiment 7 and in particular, it will be hypothesised that those dimensions moderate the dependent variables Organizational Identification and Turnover Intentions for individualistic versus collectivist leader's rhetoric (H1). The HVIC scale is necessary in order to investigate how the perception of the self in the world is more or less similar to others in Vertical vs. Horizontal cultures. For example, the horizontal individual sees oneself as equal to others, therefore perceives no difference in status or power, while in the individualist society, the individual might highlight his or her unique characteristics. Moreover, the differences in

horizontal/vertical cultures are projected on the perceptions of hierarchy. For example, VIs are more hierarchy oriented and competitive, while HIs are less status-oriented.

To test if the differences in individualism and collectivism could moderate the preference for the individualistic vs. collectivistic rhetoric, in Experiment 7 it was hypothesised that participant's preference for individualistic rhetoric could be explained in terms of their social-cognitive processing tendencies. In particular, people process information sometimes at an individual level and sometimes at more collectivistic level. Those who process information at the individual level might prefer the leader who uses individualistic rhetoric while the opposite could be for the collectivistic population.

Moreover, an additional variable, *Authentic Leadership Questionnaire* (ALQ) was included in this experiment. According to previous research by Steffens, Mols, Haslam, and Okimoto (2016), it has been suggested that leaders who promote collective interests are perceived as more authentic. Perception of the leader as authentic can be inferred through the type of rhetoric that s/he uses. In particular, in the present research, it was explored whether the use of individualistic or collectivistic rhetoric from the leader elicits greater evaluations of the authenticity of the leader.

An authentic leader can be defined if he or she encompasses different positive characteristics that are obtained through self-awareness, self-acceptance and, through different authentic relations and engagements with subordinates (Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005; Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Leaders who are true to themselves and who stand behind their own beliefs are considered to be authentic leaders (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005). The transparency of being an authentic leader can be achieved through trust, openness and guidance of followers (Gardner et al., 2005). A leader who is authentic, not only is true to him/herself but, also can inspire authenticity in his/her followers and this could lead to a better ethical climate among leaders and followers (Gardner et al., 2005). The work on authentic leadership dwells on different

theories such as positive organizational behaviour (Luthans 2002a, 2002b), transformational leadership theories (Bass, 1998) and ethical perspective-taking development (Schulman, 2002). For example, research on positive organizational behaviour, suggests that there is need for promoting positive behaviours such as hope, resilience and confidence, which in this case can be promoted through the authentic leader (Norman, Avolio, & Luthans, 2010). In particular, research from Norman et al. (2010) suggests that low or high degree of perceived authenticity and positivity in leaders had an effect on perceived followers' trust.

According to Gardner et al. (2005), leader authenticity operates both at individual and collective level. In particular, they propose that at the individual level, the leader will include into his/her identity the role of leader and therefore promote themselves as positive models for the followers. On the collective level, leaders' characteristics such as trustworthiness, credibility and respect for others, as values promoted by the group, will be included in their own identity, as part of their prototypicality/similarity to other group members. Based on this distinction, in the present research, it can be hypothesised that the leader could be perceived as authentic both when using individualistic or collectivistic rhetoric. However, based on the research from Steffens et al. (2016), leaders who are promoting collective interests are seen as more authentic than those who are focusing on values at the individual level. Moreover, these results were stronger when interpreted in terms of self-categorization - participants who identified with the ingroup (i.e., leader's group) vs. out-group evaluated the leader as more authentic. Therefore, in the present study, we followed the findings from Steffens et al. (2016) in order to advance the present hypothesis: When using collectivistic rhetoric, the leader will be perceived as more authentic (H2).

Method

The following experiment was a replication of Experiment 5 with two additional variables: horizontal/vertical collectivism/individualism and authentic leadership scale (HVIC and ALQ). In particular, the variable HVIC was considered as a moderator where high levels in collectivism would predict preference for collectivistic leader approach while high levels in individualism would predict the preference for individualistic focused rhetoric. Additionally, the ALQ was included to test whether collectivistic rhetoric results in higher evaluations of the leader for authenticity.

Participants

In this experiment, according to Power Analysis performed through the software G-Power, it was necessary to increase the number of participants due to the addition of two variables. In this study, a total of 307 participants took part in exchange for £1 on Prolific Academic. In this sample, 191 women and 131 men took part, two preferred not to indicate their gender and one person chose the option "other". The mean age of these participants was $M = 36.19$ and $SD = 11.08$. All participants were British citizens.

Design and Procedure

The design and procedure were identical as in previous experiments (5 and 6). In this experiment, the HVIC scale was included at the beginning right before the main condition, so it would be possible to measure collectivism and individualism prior to the exposure to the collectivistic vs. individualistic rhetoric. This scale was compounded of four different dimensions that measured different Horizontal/Vertical and Collectivism/Individualism orientation, which resulted in HC (example item: "My happiness depends very much on happiness of those around me"), VC ("I would do what would please my family, even if I detested that activity"), HI ("I often do "my own thing"), VI ("I enjoy working in situations involving competition with other"). The total number of items was 14 measured on a 7-item Likert scale (1= strongly agree, 7= strongly

disagree) from a reduced scale proposed by Sivadas et al., (2008). The reliabilities of scales were measured and are as follows: HC four items $\alpha = .72$; VC four items $\alpha = .72$; HI three items $\alpha = .70$; VI three items $\alpha = .77$;

The ALQ scale was included right after the condition. This scale was compounded of 16 items on a 5-item Likert scale (not at all - frequently, if not - always) (Avolio et al., 2007). Cronbach alpha for this scale was $\alpha = .94$; (e.g., [The CEO…] "says exactly what he means").

For the other dependent measures as previously used in experiment 5, the reliabilities of scales were measured and are as follows: OI $\alpha = .94$; Turnover Intentions $\alpha = .88$.; and Charisma $\alpha = .94$.

Results and Discussion

Initial Results

Descriptive statistics are reported in in Table 4.4, where means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for this experiment are presented.

Moderation analysis for Individualism/Collectivism and the Outcome Variables

In order to test the hypothesis on moderation, a moderation analysis was performed through PROCESS by Hayes (Hayes, 1986) for the dimensions of collectivism and individualism. The first moderation was performed for collectivism, where the outcome variable was Organizational Identification and the interaction term was condition x collectivism. The overall model was significant, F (3, 303) = 18.24, $R^2 = .15$, $p < .001$; however, the interaction term, $b = -.05$, t (303) = -.50, $p = .617$, was not significant, therefore a moderation effect was not present for these variables. The main effect of condition on OI was $b = -.12$, $t = -1.36$, $p = .174$ while the main effect for collectivism on OI was $b = -.39$, $t = -7.24$, $p < .001$. The effect of condition on variables OI and Collectivism and Individualism are reported bellow in the independent t-test analysis section.

The identical analysis was performed also for the variable individualism. A non-significant interaction effect was observed showing that neither individualism could moderate the effect of conditions on the outcome Organizational Identification $F(1, 303) = 0.019$, $p = .91$, $R^2 = .00$, $p = .083$.

Table 4. 4 Means, SDs and intercorrelations of key variables.

	Variable	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.	Organizational Ident.	3.54	.88	-.65**	.60**	.36**	.03	.31**	.14**	.08	.61**	.55**	.52**	.34**
2.	Turnover	2.93	.86	-	-.57**	-.26**	-.01	-.27**	-.12**	-.01	-.57**	-.54**	-.48**	-.37**
3.	Charisma	4.35	1.11	-	-	.12**	.02	.26**	.10	.05	.46**	.53**	.34**	.33**
4.	HC	5.15	.92	-	-	-	.16**	.46**	.20**	-.06	.22**	.15**	.23**	.09
5.	HI	5.30	.94	-	-	-	-	-.07	.05	.08	.07	-.00	.03	-.00
6.	VC	4.26	1.08	-	-	-	-	-	.29**	.09	.27**	.30**	.27**	.20**
7.	VI	4.34	1.19	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.00	.17**	.21**	.13*	.07
8.	You/FM	3.89	1.39	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.73**	.76**	.34**
9.	You/BH	2.86	1.42	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.63**	.32**
10.	You/Others	4.18	1.33	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.30**
11.	FM/BH	5.67	1.46	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

The moderation analysis was performed for the DV: Turnover, where the interaction term was calculated again for condition and individualism/collectivism (PROCESS, Hayes, 1986). The overall model was F (3, 303) = 10.47, R^2 = .09, p < .001. However, the interaction term for condition x collectivism was not significant, b = -.07, t (303) = -.66, p = .512. For the individualism as moderator, the overall model was F (3, 303) = .91, R^2 = .01, p = .453 and the interaction term, condition x individualism, was non-significant: b = -.03, t (303) = -.26, p = .801. This indicated that there was no moderation for the variable collectivism/individualism on Turnover Intentions.

Independent t-test analysis for the main dependent variables

An independent simple t-test was performed in order to see if there were differences between the two conditions for each dependent variable. On the first dependent variable, ALQ, a non-significant effect was observed ("I" M= 3.08, SD = .80, "we" M =3.21, SD =.78, t(305)= -1.48, p = .140, d = .16. Following, there was no significant difference between "I" and "we" condition for OI, "I" M= 3.47, SD = .89, "we" M =3.61, SD =.86, t(305)= 1.40, p = .162, d = .17. Almost identical mean values were obtained for the Turnover variable in two conditions, "I" M= 2.95, SD = .84, "we" M =2.93, SD =.87, t(305)= .22, p = .825, d = .02.

For the IOS scales, where the closeness for leader and organization was measured, in this experiment the significant difference in Experiment 5 was not replicated. In particular, for the pair You-Organization (YO) "I" M= 3.83, SD = 1.36, "we" M =3.95, SD =1.41, t (296) = - .69, p = .490, d = .09. For You-Leader (YL): "I" M= 2.81, SD = 1.35, "we" M =2.91, SD =1.48, t (299) = -.56, p = .574, d = .07. For the pair You-Followers (YF) on average the participants felt closer to other employees than to the leader or Organization; however, not significantly different for the two conditions: "I" M= 4.09, SD = 1.28, "we" M = 4.26, SD =1.36, t (299) = -1.09, p = .275, d = .13. The highest closeness was perceived to be for the relation between the leader and the company; however, this

difference was not significant between conditions: Organization-Leader (OL) "I" *M*= 5.64, *SD* = 1.40, "we" *M* =5.70, *SD* =1.51, *t* (300)= -.35, *p* = .723, *d* = .04.

T-tests for individualism and collectivism were conducted as well. For the variable Individualism there were no differences between two conditions, "I" M = 4.68, SD = .87, "we" *M* = 4.85, *SD* = .75, *t* (300) = -.78, *p* = .437, *d* = -.08. For the variable Collectivism there was no significant difference between two conditions as well: "I" *M* = 4.68, *SD* = .87, *t* (300) = -.37, *p* = .713, *d* = -.08.

Discussion

In Experiment 7 the previously obtained significant results (Experiment 5) in terms of similarity and identification with the individualistic leader were not replicated. Based on the results from this experiment, it cannot be concluded that individual differences (such as individualism or collectivism beliefs) can explain the preference for the "I"-oriented leader as in Experiment 5. Moreover, on the authentic leadership scale, the CEO was not perceived as more authentic when he used "we" rhetoric as suggested by previous findings (Steffens & Haslam, 2013).

General Discussion

This chapter has presented findings from three experiments that explored followers' preference for individualistic or collectivistic leader's rhetoric. These three experiments provided evidence for the use of different rhetorical style that has been explored through the use of an email. In particular, as compared to the Chapter 3, where video-communication was used, in the present chapter, the shift to emails has been justified by Schumann et al. (2017) as a widely used communication tool and therefore easier to manipulate in online studies.

The present findings (Experiment 5) showed unexpected results pattern and not in line with current literature on leadership rhetoric style. The Social Identity Model of Leadership supports the idea that a leader who promotes collective identity through the

use of collectivistic rhetoric will have greater support. Specifically, previous evidence on leader's rhetoric indicated a preference for a "we"-based rhetoric (Steffens & Haslam, 2013). Therefore, the results from Experiment 5 do not comply with the findings in the current literature. In particular, the opposite pattern of results in Experiment 5 suggests that maybe individuals in an organizational context, do prefer a distinct leader. In particular, the preference for a distinct leadership style has been supported by the literature on uncertainty (Rast, 2015). Research suggests that under particular conditions such as uncertainty, followers show preference for autocratic or narcissistic leaders when compared to prototypical leaders.

Moreover, research on similarity suggest how sometimes activating a superordinate category that shifts the ingroup "we" to more inclusive "us" is not always beneficial (Crisp, Stone & Hall, 2006). In particular, focusing on a common ingroup model, this theoretical approach is beneficial only for high identifiers. Crisp et al. (2006) have showed that merging different sub-categories can only increase bias. This in fact, is a result of perceived threat to the social identity by the process of recategorization (Hornsey & Hogg, 2000). Previous research posits how accentuation of superordinate category will reduce intergroup differences and outweigh the differences within the groups. However, on the other hand, individuals are also motivated to preserve their own identity and reduce uncertainty. When there is perceived threat to the positive distinctiveness of the ingroup, the ingroup is more likely to express preferences for their own ingroup and be reluctant to the outgroup (Jetten et al., 2001). This research has been in particular supported by the level of ingroup identification. In other words, when ingroup members are high identifiers there are more likely to preserve the positive identity of their group and be distinct from the outgroup (e.g., leader).

On the other hand, evidence from Experiments 6 and 7 explored individual differences and from these findings, it is not possible to conclude that either the need for

structured environment or differences in cultural attitudes such as individualism vs. collectivism explain the results of Experiment 5. In previous experiments levels of Personal Need for Structure predicted a preference for a prototypical leader (Leicht, Crisp & De Moura, 2013). However, this cognitively-based variable, that explains how people process the world, did not explain the preference for either one or other type of leader. There was no difference between individuals who reported a high need for structure vs. low need for structure that could explain identification, turnover or preference for the leader's type of rhetoric. In Experiment 7 only individual differences were considered, which can be considered as a limitation. Contextual variables (e.g., uncertainty) were not manipulated or measured in the experiments. For example, it is possible that from the speech of the leader, uncertainty was inferred as the leader was focusing on "future ideas", and often ideas about future can instil uncertainty which could lead to no identification with the organization, leader or the other ingroup members as suggested by Rast (2013).

Additionally, the authenticity of a prototypical leader was tested in Experiment 7. Previous evidence from Steffens et al. (2016), suggested that a prototypical leader who champions the "we" of the group is perceived also to be more authentic. In Experiment 7, this perception of the authenticity of the leader did not seem to vary whether the leader was promoting the individualistic or collectivistic rhetorical style. Notably, the rhetorical analysis in Steffens et al. (2016) focuses on the political context, so it could be possible that in the organizational environment perceptions of authenticity can transpire through other variables (e.g., use of metaphors, personal anecdotes; Weischer, Weibler, & Petersen, 2013). However, here, the authenticity of the leader did not depend on the rhetorical style as suggested by Steffens et al. (2016). Future research could explore further the link between leader authenticity and rhetoric with focus on personal values, thoughts and emotions (Gardner et al., 2005; Harter, 2002).

It is important to note the limitations of the present studies. All the studies were of exploratory nature and the participants who took part in the experiments were from a wide pool of participants signed up on 'Prolific Academic'. Some of the participants may have never had any "organizational" experience with the CEO or similar level of managerial style. This limitation will be addressed in Experiment 9 (Chapter 5). A second concern is that the results observed in the first experiment were not replicated once additional variables were introduced. Related to this new design plan, an additional limitation is the use of variables that measure differences only at the individual level. In the present experiment it was hypothesised that the preference for a different rhetorical style in leaders could be due to the individualistic and cultural attitudes. Related to this limitation and the previous on pool participants, it would have been difficult to explore the contextual variables. These limitations could be addressed in future research where the contextual variables (e.g., uncertainty) and an organizational sample could be proposed in a similar experimental design. Additionally, it could be explored the effect of gender, manipulating the name of the CEO (in the present research we used the stereotype of a male CEO). Based on the literature on glass cliff (Ryan, Haslam, Hersby, & Bongiorno, 2011) and leader preference for non-prototypical leaders under uncertainty (Rast, 2015), in the future research, the findings from Experiment 5, could be replicated with a female figure as the CEO (Randsley de Moura, Leicht, Leite, Crisp, & Goclowska, 2018).

The present chapter explored the effect of indirect contact through a common mean of communication in the organizations from a leader (e.g., e-mail). The results showed that followers might have a preference for a leader who uses distanced communicative style. The reasons behind this preference were further analysed in terms of individual differences, however, those did not explain the results obtained in the first experiment.

Chapter 5

Imagined Contact with Leaders and Organizational Identification: Testing a Moderating Role of an Imagined Audience

Abstract

In the present chapter of this doctoral thesis, three experiments are reported. In these experiments, imagined intergroup contact with the leader was manipulated in order to explore how this technique can be useful in the organizational setting. The experimental designs were based on research by Meleady and Crisp (2017) which showed imagined contact could produce positive outcomes both for the leader and the organization. Participants were recruited online and asked to imagine they met the leader alone vs. with other group members. The dependent variables in these experiments were organizational identification, turnover intention, interactional justice and trust. The results revealed no significant effects. Potential explanations, limitations and, future research will be discussed.

Introduction

Since Allport (1954) proposed the intergroup contact hypothesis, many psychologists have focused on the benefits of direct contact and how under right conditions it can benefit intergroup relations. Direct intergroup contact has been found to be useful in reducing intergroup prejudice; however, sometimes when the ingroup perceives a threat from the outgroup, direct contact becomes also a predictor of prejudice (Pettigrew, Christ, Wagner, & Stellmacher, 2007; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006). Although research has provided substantial evidence for direct contact as a successful approach, this type of contact is not always possible. Direct contact is constrained in segregated communities or groups that are limited by social and physical distance. The alternative approach proposed by social psychologists is *indirect* contact. Indirect contact does not require direct face to face contact and therefore has been used to solve the limitations of direct contact. As discussed in Chapter 2, indirect contact can take place through extended, vicarious and imagined contact and this literature shows how alternative ways to direct contact can be as successful. For example, indirect contact has been found to help resolve prejudice, or other types of ingroup-outgroup conflicts (Vezzali et al., 2014). In Chapters 3 and 4, the main focus was on extended and vicarious types of contact.

Research on extended and vicarious contact has shown beneficial effects in different contexts and among different groups. For example, extended contact was a successful alternative to direct contact in segregated communities as a reconciliation solution (Nadler, Malloy, Malloy, & Fisher, 2008; Tam, Hewstone, Kenworthy, & Cairns, 2009). Alternatively, vicarious contact based on observation of video and media interactions led to greater intergroup contact and reduced prejudice (Lienemann & Stopp, 2013). However, the main limitation of extended contact is that there is likely to be the absence of any contact with the members of the existing social network. In other words, extended contact might be difficult to implement when the person does not know anyone

from the outgroup or anyone who is prone to interact with the outgroup. When these extended contact conditions are not met, imagined contact can be the easy alternative.

In the case of the organizational context, it could be the case for the CEO who does not interact with everyone from the company, or the new employees have limited knowledge of him/her as well as limited social networks. In fact, given the structure of organizations which is constantly changing in size, complexity and geographic location, it is understandable that physical distance between leaders and followers could be a crucial variable (Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999). Physically distant leaders are disadvantaged in opportunities for direct influence and effective relationship with followers (Napier & Ferris, 1993). Moreover, physical distance does not allow the ideal conditions for leadership because it limits both relationship and task-oriented leadership (Kerr & Jermier, 1978).

It is known from previous research on Leader-Member Exchange Theory how frequent contact and communication between leaders and followers strengthens this relationship and improves employees' job satisfaction and performance (Kacmar et al., 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Podsakoff, Todor, Grover, & Huber, 1984). When direct face-to-face contact with the leader is limited or not possible in cases discussed above, I propose here to test the imagined contact as the alternative. This type of indirect contact has been mostly used in intergroup contact. Specifically, imagined contact with the leader as individual or as the ingroup member has not received attention in the literature until recently (with the exception of Meleady & Crisp, 2017).

The aim of the present research is to explore what is the best approach in terms of contact for a leader with limited direct contact (e.g., CEO) in order to create positive connections and improve the organizational environment. The potential for imagined contact, intended as a precontact tool with the leader as the alternative to face-to-face contact will be explored in the present chapter.

Imagined intergroup contact

Imagined intergroup contact is the "mental simulation of a social interaction with a member or members of an outgroup category" (Crisp & Turner, 2009, p. 234; 2012). Researchers on imagined intergroup contact suggest that this simulation has to be based on a *positive* contact experience as the main aim is to improve relations between the ingroup and outgroup. The positive experience of imagined contact is one of the crucial elements in this approach, while negative or neutral imagined contact can have the opposite or no effect in the intergroup relations (Stathi & Crisp, 2008; West et al., 2011). This is especially important for those groups where there is negative pre-existing contact. For example, imagined intergroup contact has been successful in reducing prejudice among two rival groups in Cyprus (Greek/Cypriots vs Turkish/Cypriots). In particular, the effect of the imagined contact here was mediated by the level of perspective-taking, imagining positive contact from another perspective enhanced the effect of imagined contact in reducing prejudice towards the outgroup (Shenel Husnu & Crisp, 2015). Not only, imagined contact differs from extended contact as it does not require previous existing direct contact or the knowledge that an ingroup member has a friend from the outgroup. Therefore, this approach can be successful in situations where groups are segregated but also, where there is no direct contact with the outgroup. Imagined contact constitutes not only the alternative to direct contact but, more importantly, can be intended as a "*precontact tool*" which prepares the ingroup for future positive meetings with the outgroup (see Crisp & Turner, 2012, p. 134).

The approach of mental simulations has been widely used in different areas of research apart from social psychology, e.g., advertisement, (Escalas & Luce, 2003); sport (Feltz & Landers, 1983), education (Pham & Taylor, 1999) and, its application has been supported by neuroimaging research which shows how similar neural mechanisms are

involved in imagining behaviour and emotion, motor control and mimicry (Decety & Grèzes, 2006; Kosslyn, Ganis, & Thompson, 2001).

One of the latest contexts where imagined contact has been applied is contact with the leader in the organization. Meleady and Crisp (2017) implemented imagined contact with the leader and showed how imagining meeting the leader instilled group prototypicality, and as a result, increased group identification, which in this case is defined as organizational identification. In particular, they compared imagined contact with the leader alone vs. imagined contact with the co-worker. The results showed greater Organizational Identification in the condition when the participants had to imagine meeting the leader. This suggests the importance of the leader since this figure can represent the idea of social group more strongly than the similar co-worker. Moreover, they showed how imagining contact with the leader, lead to better evaluations of the leader as well, where participants indicated more positive attitudes toward the leader. The positive attitudes toward the leader mediated also organizational identification. The results from this research suggested that when followers evaluate positively the leader this reflects well on the organization.

On the basis of this previous research, imagined contact could be used as alternative to direct contact and as a precontact tool in the organizational environment where usually followers have limited direct contact with the CEO. Direct contact has been mostly analysed so far in the literature through the Leader-member-exchange theory (LMX, Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) or models of transformational and charismatic type of leadership (Balwant, 2019; Shamir, 1995). The literature on leader distance has been elucidated thoroughly by Antonakis and Atwater (2002) in their review where they identify three main dimensions of contact with the leader (i.e., physical distance, social distance and perceived task interaction frequency). These researchers point out how leadership is, not only an influencing process which is inferred from the leader's behaviour

and performance but, is sometimes constrained by an important contextual variable such as leader distance. In particular, they identified this boundary condition in different leadership models (e.g., transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership theories). For example, leader distance is crucial both for follower's identification and trust (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002). In particular, researchers suggest that leader's charismatic communicative style which can be observed by followers has positive effects such as identification and trust (Shamir, 1995). Charismatic leadership can arise especially in larger organizations where followers have limited contact and information about the leader. In these conditions, followers can only assume that the leader is capable and inspiring to solve organizational problems (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

LMX theory distinguishes between high-quality relationships, which are based on mutual trust, support and obligation while low-quality relationships are based purely on formal, impersonal relations with the followers. High-quality LMX relationships lead their members to internalize both leaders' and group's goals, whereas low-quality LMX relationships result in a less favourable situation, where the subordinates do not necessarily internalize the goals as their own. This line of research focuses on differentiated relationship between leaders and followers. In particular, the followers can be part of the "ingroup" or "outgroup" based on the extent to which their relationship is close with the leader (e.g., high or low in quality). The "ingroup followers" have a close and personal relationship while the "outgroup followers" are distanced and have a formal type of relation with the leader. The Role-Making Model (Graen & Scandura, 1987) describes how LMX relationships build gradually with a history of successful social exchanges. As such, contact is likely to be an important factor in the development and maintenance of LMX relationships. Indeed, leader delegation and subordinate performance are key predictors of LMX quality both of which require ongoing contact (Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Ilies, 2009). Given the importance of contact for leader-follower

relationships, the often limited time and resources of leaders makes the potential of imagined contact a promising alternative. In particular, such technique will be used as in Meleady and Crisp (2017).

Leader trust

Successful leaders are those who can inspire their followers and build up the trust they need in order to lead forward the group (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Historically, some of the great leaders have managed to lead groups of thousands of people into fierce battles or conquests and trust seemed as the main guiding force (Burke et al., 2007). That trust is important for leadership is not new. Indeed, engendering trust has been a central tenet of different organisational leadership theories (e.g., LMX theory: Gómez & Rosen, 2001; transformational theory: Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). The importance of trust is supported as well, since, it has been shown to positively correlate to other organizational behaviours such as cooperation, communication (Williams, 2005), greater citizenship behaviour, lower turnover (Connell, Ferres & Travaglione, 2003) team (Hogg, 2001) and organizational performance (Awe, 1997). The absence or low trust in leaders can lead followers to quit (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

Furthermore, robust relationships have been found between employees' trust in their leader and a host of valued outcomes such as increased follower job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour (see Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). What can be more detrimental for organizations is the loss of trust? An organizational example is that of the CEO of *Tyco* whose followers showed complete loss of trust after the multimillion-dollar corporate fraud scandal (Burke et al., 2007). Politically speaking, the British Prime Minister, Theresa May recently failed in delivering the political scenario of Brexit which resulted not only in loss of trust but also in need for more drastic action of resignation and leaving the country in temporary chaos. Indeed,

such recent social and political developments suggest that trust in traditional leadership structures has declined steeply. The corporate world is not faring much better and public trust in CEOs has dropped to 31% in developed countries (Edelman Trust Barometer, 2016). When employees do not trust their organization, they are more likely to leave or engage in negative actions (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), trust therefore is a valued asset.

Trust has received attention over the years by many academics and different definitions were proposed (for different examples of trust definitions see the review by Burke et al., 2007). Mayer et al. (1995) define trust as the state of vulnerability with the others when decisions and behaviours are being directed by the leader.

Most definitions of trust such as the one offered by Mayer and colleagues (1995) above, portray trust as unidimensional, however, other operationalizations focus on multidimensional dimensions of the construct. For example, McAllister (1995) distinguishes between cognitive and affective forms of trust. Cognitive trust refers to rational assessments of qualities such as ability and reliability that are built on the outcomes of previous interactions as well as judgements about similarity and the professional qualifications of the other party. In contrast, affective trust refers to the emotional ties in an interpersonal relationship and is informed by perceptions of the other party's motives, the extent to which they provide help and support, and frequency of interaction.

Trust at the interpersonal level has received attention especially within LMX theory (Gómez & Rosen, 2001). Trust has been found to be an important feature of high quality LMX relationships (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). LMX is a theory grounded in principles of social exchange wherein exchanges occur as leaders' express behaviours towards employees, which result in a felt obligation to reciprocate. According to social exchange theory, actions tend to be repaid in good behaviour and this is likely to continue through a series of reciprocal exchanges (Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, & Hall, 2016). Trust in

the leader entails risk and positive expectations of another party (e.g., Rousseau et al., 1998). The more the leader and follower trust each other, the more likely their LMX relationship is to be strengthened further. As such, trust plays a key role in the development and deepening of positive social exchanges as it encourages obligation and reduces uncertainty around reciprocation (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). This is one of the levels in which trust can exist. In their review, Burke et al., (2007) described three levels of trust: interpersonal, team and organizational. For example, the team level sees trust developing between members of the team and this type of dependence is strengthen by the higher interactions at this level. Moreover, trust at the interpersonal level promotes the relationship between the leader and one of the members of the team. Lastly, trust in the organization as whole results from positive interactions at both the individual level with the leader and at the group level with other members of the organization.

Trust has received attention also from the other more recent approaches to leadership such as the Social Identity Theory of Leadership (SITL) (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003b). According to the conceptualization of the leader as a prototypical member of the group, SITL argues that such leaders as members of the group are more trusted. Followers who are highly identified with the organization are more likely to internalize the interests of the organization as their own. This is not only important when oneself acts to promote organizational goals as his/her own, but also, when allows trusting others as having same goals. Having a prototypical leader who identifies with the group, who has group's interests at heart, enhances the chances of greater trust for both leader and other ingroup members (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003b). Therefore, it can be predicted that followers are more likely to trust a prototypical leader rather than a non-prototypical one as s/he is representative of ingroup values and will work hard to achieve them.

The Present Research

The present research addressed the research question: *Can imagined contact with the leader lead to positive outcomes in terms of identification, loyalty to the organization and trust*? This research question follows the recent findings from Meleady and Crisp (2017), where they tested how imagining meeting the CEO increased organizational identification and better evaluations of the leader. Moreover, in the present research the independent variable was manipulated also in terms of group membership: The present research will explore how imagined contact with the leader alone vs. in group will elicit greater organizational identification and lower turnover intentions (H1). A second hypothesis will test if imagined contact with the leader will result in greater trust (H2).

Experiment 8

Method

Following the inconclusive findings from previous experiments (Chapter 3 and 4), in the present research it was necessary to develop new materials. In my studies so far vicarious and extended contact have not seemed to be a successful alternative to indirect contact with the leader. Previous experiments tested vicarious contact through a video of the leader delivering a message on the future of the company. The leader was displayed with or without an audience; however, this manipulation did not have significant effects on the evaluation of the leader and the organization. Vicarious contact with the CEO was also limited in the realistic representation of communication with the leader. Therefore, in Experiment 5, the e-mail communication was closer to organizational realities. However, in Chapter 4, I did not find moderators that could explain the preference for the individualistic rhetoric. Here, I decided to test the last type of indirect contact, imagined contact, as this approach has been successful in previous research (Meleady & Crisp, 2017). In Experiment 8, the imagined contact technique was used as the main research tool and a new variable trust was included. Based on previous findings from Meleady and

Crisp (2017), in the present study, imagined contact was tested in the academic context. In particular, the experiment tested whether imagined contact with the academic Head of the Department (alone vs. in group) increases Organizational Identification (H1) and Trust in leader (H2) in the experimental condition.

Participants

As in previous experiments, in order to determine the number of participants, the power analysis was performed a priori (set power = .80 and medium effect size $d = .50$). In this experiment, 150 people took part in exchange for £1 through *Prolific Academic*. However, 3 participants were excluded from final analysis, since they failed to complete the imagery task. Out of 147 participants, 53 were male, 93 females and 1 preferred to not indicate the gender. The sample included participants aged from 18 to 59 years old, $M = 26.6$, $SD = 8.08$.

Design and procedure

This study was created and administered using *Qualtrics*, the online platform for creating surveys following the design of previous experiments. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the two conditions. At the end of the experiment, they were asked to complete their demographics and fully debriefed.

Independent variables. Participants were introduced to the experiment with the information sheet, followed by the imagination task. The imagination task included a brief description of a fictitious university, and it required the participants to imagine they are students at this university. The vignette described:

> We would like you to imagine that you are a student at Lorwich University. Lorwich University, as a distinctive leading academic centre, that has been established for over 150 years. Lorwich University has developed a national reputation for its innovative, modern and research-oriented community. This university has a strong commitment to offer original and fulfilling experience to

all of its students to develop their skills and pursue their passion. As such, Lorwich University is interested in getting valuable feedback from its students.

This year the Head of the Department would like to discuss the student experience with some of the students at Lorwich University.

Now, imagine yourself meeting the Head of the Department *on your own* (*with a group of other students*) to give your feedback on students' experience at Lorwich University. Try to discuss any issues and provide future suggestions. Imagine the interaction is relaxed, positive and comfortable.

The imagery task was randomly presented in two different conditions. One condition required the imagination alone with the Head of the Department while condition 2 was to imagine the interaction with the Head of the Department and other students. The imagination task was followed by a writing space box, where participants would write what they imagined to reinforce the imagery task.

Dependent variables. As in previous experiments, Organizational Identification was used as the main variable and measured using the scale by Randsley De Moura et al., (2009). This was followed by the Inclusion of the Other in Self measure which illustrates graphical circles that measure the closeness between the supervisor and ingroup (IOS) (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000). In this experiment, a new dependent variable was included: trust in supervisor (Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008). This variable is compounded of 6 items, where participants indicate their agreement on a 7-item Likert scale (1= strongly disagree; 7= strongly agree). Example of items: "I trust the Head of the Department absolutely." and "I think the Head of the Department does the right things.". The reliabilities for the two scales were: OI, $\alpha = .90$ and (7 items), trust $\alpha = .93$ (6 items).

Results and Discussion

There was one predictor variable (group encounter) and three dependent variables: OI, IOS and trust. For these variables, means, SDs, reliabilities and inter-correlations are all presented in Table 5.1.

In order to test Hypothesis 1 an independent sample t-test was conducted. From the results it was observed that there were no significant differences for the dependent variables. In particular, for the OI there was no difference for the two groups: "alone" M =3.67, SD = .81, "group" M = 3.79, SD = .81, t (137) = .86, p = .396, d = .15. Overall trust in Head of the Department (Leader) was not significantly different for the two groups: "alone" M =5.53, SD = 1, "group" M = 5.46, SD = .95, t (137) = .42, p = .666, d = .07. For the closeness between "You-Leader" measure the results revealed no significant difference: "alone" M =3.10, SD = 1.35, "group" M = 3.50, SD = 1.35, t (137) = -1.72, p = .103, d = .30. Participants overall felt closer to other students (You-Followers); however, this was not significant: "alone" M =4.65, SD = 1.55, "group" M = 4.72, SD = 1.17, t (137) = -.29, p= .752, d = .05. Lastly, "Leader-Followers" was also non-significant: "alone" M =3.53, SD = 1.46, "group" M = 3.78, SD = 1.34, t (137) = -1.01, p= .356, d = .18.

Table 5. 1 Reliabilities, means, SDs and inter-correlations of key variables.

	Variable	α	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Organizational Identification	.90	3.74	.81	.38**	.16	.28**	.51**	.07
2.	You-Leader	-	3.32	1.35	-	.41**	.66**	.52**	.14
3.	You-Followers	-	4.75	1.35	-	-	.20*	.21*	.03
4.	Leader-Followers	-	3.64	1.37	-	-	-	.42**	.08
5.	Trust	.93	5.47	.98	-	-	-	-	.04

Note: Means ($N = 136$), condition is a dichotomous variable, 1 = alone, 2 = group. *$p<.05$, ** $p<.01$

Discussion

These results show that imagined contact with the leader alone vs. in a group did not have a significant effect on the participants' identification with the organization (H1) nor trust in leader. Imagining meeting the leader in a positive and relaxed environment led to a slightly higher perceived closeness with the leader; however, this was not significant ($p = .09$).

It is important to note that the present sample was from a general population recruited online through Prolific Academic. It could be that this sample was comprised largely of people who had little experience of corporate environments, which could have limited the effectiveness of the imagery procedure. I therefore, decided to re-run the present experiment with a more relevant sample.

Experiment 9

Method

The present experiment replicated the design and procedure from Experiment 8 with a sample of participants employed in a publicly listed company. In the present experiment, the hypothesis tested was the same as in Experiment 8: Meeting the leader (managing director) in group will increase OI, trust and lower Turnover compared to the other condition (alone) (H1).

Participants

In the present experiment 150 participants took part, 6 were excluded as they failed to appropriately complete the imaginary task, therefore a total of 144 responses were analysed for the present experiment. The mean and standard deviations for age in this sample were $M = 36.47$ and $SD = 10.85$. The pool of participants was comprised of 49 males and 94 females. One participant did not report age and gender. All participants were recruited online through Prolific Academic and received £1 for their participation. They were told that the experiment was an imagery task and that they had to imagine meeting

their Managing Director. Participants were selected from a specific pool of participants who were in full-time employment with publicly listed companies.

Manipulation Check question

Imagery task. Participants had to complete a writing task right after the imagination part, to reinforce and check that they have actually imagined the scenario.

Design and procedure

Independent variables. The design and procedure were similar to Experiment 8, however, in the present experiment, a shorter version of vignette and imaginary task was used which did not require the imagination of a fictitious organization. In this experiment, participants were presented randomly with one of the two conditions and they were asked to imagine the following scenarios.

Condition one (*alone*) read:

> "Imagine yourself meeting the Managing Director of the company you work for. Imagine meeting the Managing Director on your own. Imagine the interaction is relaxed, positive and comfortable."

Condition two (*group*) read:

> "Imagine yourself meeting the Managing Director of the company you work for. Imagine meeting the Managing Director with a group of other employees. Imagine the interaction is relaxed, positive and comfortable."

This was followed by a writing space where the participants could write what they had imagined and therefore reinforce the imagery task.

Dependent variables.

Direct contact. This variable was used to establish the extent to which the participant had actual contact with their leader. Specifically, I asked "have you ever met the Managing Director of your Company that you actually imagined?". This question was asked at the end of the questionnaire. Participants could respond with "yes" or "no" (categorical

variable: 0 = yes, 1 = no). With this variable it was possible to test whether direct contact is actually a prerequisite for a successful indirect contact or if indirect contact can be successful as a precontact tool for those who have never actually met the leader.

In this experiment an alternative scale for OI was used (adapted as in Blader & Tyler, 2009; original scale Mael & Ashforth, 1992). This scale is a 5-item Likert scale (e.g., "working at my company is important to the way I think of myself as a person"). Participants could express their agreement on the scale from 1 to 5, where 1 = strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. The reliability of this scale was $\alpha = .79$. The reliabilities of other two dependent variables were also measured: turnover $\alpha = .84$ and trust $\alpha = .92$. At the end of the survey participants provided demographic information such as age, gender and ethnicity/nationality and were fully debriefed.

Results and Discussion

Manipulation Check. In order to test that the participants had completed the imagery task successfully, each response in the writing task was analysed and those who did not imagine the intergroup contact were excluded from the analysis (6 in total). Further analysis on the imagery elaboration was then conducted. The word count was analysed and correlated with the dependent variable to test whether greater elaboration in terms of the number of words written led to higher scores on dependent variables. It was expected in particular that this correlation would be stronger and significant for the "group" condition, while the opposite pattern would be observed in the "alone" condition. The results showed that the correlation with the OI was not significant for both conditions (alone vs group). In particular, in the condition "alone" r = -.19, $p = .13$, and the condition "group" r = .06, $p = .62$. This suggests that the manipulation of the imagined contact does not lead to correlation between elaboration of the task and the dependent variable (OI).

Additional correlational analysis was performed for the key variables in this experiment. In Table 3 the means, SDs and intercorrelations are presented.

Table 5. 2 Reliabilities, means, SDs and inter-correlations for the main variables.

Variable	α	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. OI	.79	3.41	.81	.23**	.46**	.31**	.12	-.45**	.36**	-.02
2. YL	-	3.10	1.53	-	.41**	.66**	.52**	.14	.45**	.05
3. YO	-	3.79	1.42	-	-	.20*	.21*	.03	.38**	.05
4. YF	-	4.51	1.32	-	-	-	.42**	.08	.23**	.11
5. OL	.93	5.14	1.32	-	-	-	-	-.04	.37**	.05
6. Turnover	.84	3.02	.85	-	-	-	-	-	-.21*	-.01
7. Trust	.92	5.42	.95	-	-	-	-	-	-	.08
8. elaboration	-	29.30	17.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Note: $N = 134$, *$p<.05$, ** $p<.01$. The condition is a categorical variable, 1=alone, 2=group. YL=you-leader, YO= you-organization, YF=you-followers, OL=organization-leader.

Following this preliminary analysis, a t-test was performed to test if there were any differences between two groups on the dependent variables. The t-test showed no significant differences for any dependent variable (OI, Turnover, Trust and IOS). For OI participants reported higher identification with the organization in the group condition, although this was non-significant: "alone" M = 3.28, SD = .83 vs. "group" M = 3.53, SD = .76, t (132) = -1.80, p= .073, d = .31. The mean for turnover intentions in the "group" condition was not significant: "alone" M = 3.04, SD = .88 vs. "group" M = 2.98, SD = .82, t(132) = .39, p= .699, d = .07. The trust perceived for the leader was almost identical for both groups: "group" M = 5.43, SD = 1.07 vs. "alone" M = 5.42, SD = .81, t(132)= .07, p=.940, d = .02.

For the four pair of circles that measured the inclusion of the other in self, there were no significant differences. In particular, for the pair: "You-Leader (YL)", "alone" M = 3.31, SD = 1.68 vs. "group" M = 2.88, SD = 1.34, t (125) = 1.65, p= .102, d = .28; Closeness with the company (You-Organization, YO): "alone" M = 3.75, SD = 1.59 vs "group" M = 3.84, SD = 1.22, t(132)= -.36, p=.717, d = .06; "You-Followers (YF)": condition "alone" M = 4.31, SD = 1.36 vs. "group" M = 4.72, SD = 1.25, t(132)= -1.78, p = .077, d = .31; "Organization-Leader (OL)": "alone" M = 5.16, SD = 1.61 vs. "group" M = 5.12, SD = 1.55, t(132)= .15, p=.870, d = .02.

Direct contact analysis. In order to test if the imagined contact could be an alternative to direct contact or whether direct contact is crucial prerequisite to contact, further analysis was conducted. In particular, a t-test was run for those who have actually met the leader (i.e., Managing Director) and for those who have not. From the results of this t-test, there was no significant difference between the two groups (i.e., yes = met the MD vs. no = have not met the MD). However, for OI the difference was not significant for those who have not met MD but, for those who actually have met the MD there was a trend: "alone" M = 3.30, SD = .84 vs. "group" M = 3.67, SD = .67, t(58)= -1.80, p = .017,

d = .48. These results suggest higher OI for participants who have met the MD in the "group" condition. This could suggest that the organizational identification with the leader might be easier when there is pre-existing direct contact with the leader, supporting the assertion that prior experience enhances the effectiveness of the imagery task.

From the results, it can be observed that imagined contact at individual or collective level with the leader did not result in any significant difference for the measured variables: OI, trust and turnover. However, observing that organizational identification is higher for the "group" condition for those who actually have met the Managing Director suggests that the direct contact enhances the effectiveness of the imagination task and also leads to higher feelings of closeness with the leader. This could be explained considering the fact that it is easier to elaborate and make more vivid the encounter if previous contact has taken place (see Crisp & Turner, 2012). To explore this idea further, vividness was measured in Experiment 10. It could be the case that the more vivid the imagery of encountering the leader, the stronger the impact of the task.

Experiment 10

This experiment replicated the imagined contact approach while adding a measure of vividness. In fact, one of the key elements for imagined contact is the vividness and how clear and similar to the real experience a specific image is (Marks, 1972). I also introduced another variable, *interactional justice*. In the following, the literature on procedural justice is described and justification for including this variable is provided.

Organizational Justice

Organizational justice or how fairness is distributed in the organization has received particular interest over the years. The conceptualization of justice has expanded with the development of several different types of justice in the organizational context. Perceptions of fairness are pertinent to many contexts and research has been conducted in education (Sadker & Sadker, 1995), political orientations (Marx, 1970) and medical care

(Daniels Light & Caplan, 1996). In the organizational context, research on fairness started with the work on inequity and perceived injustice in wage distribution (Eyck, Labansat, Gresky, Dansereau, & Lord, 2006). Subsequent critique on the theory of equity by Leventhal (1980) led to the definition of the first type of organizational justice: distributive justice. Leventhal (1980) advance how this theory is mostly based on a unidimensional factor, therefore he suggested that a multidimensional approach to the distributive justice was more appropriate. Distributive justice was therefore defined as a perceived justice on three allocative norms such as equality, equity and need (Leventhal, 1980). Finally, interactional justice has been proposed and defined as justice at the interpersonal level with the leader (Bies & Moag, 1986). Interactional justice entails personal contact with the manager and is related to the processes of communication between the two parties. If interactional injustice is perceived this can emerge at cognitive, affective and behavioural levels. In other words, if the employee perceives unfair treatment by the manager this could result in either negative evaluations, emotions or behaviour on the employees' behalf. Importantly, these behaviours are directed towards the supervisor but not necessarily towards the organization as a whole (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000).

Organizational justice is an important construct to consider since it is related to organizational performance and more importantly to extra-role behaviours. In the meta-analysis by Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001), the researchers explored which specific outcomes were related to different roles of justice. As previously suggested by Colquitt et al. (2001) distributive, procedural and interactional justice are three distinct constructs and Cohen et al. (2001), confirmed this in the meta-analysis. Moreover, they show how different types of justice are related to organizational citizenship behaviour (distributive and procedural justice), job satisfaction (procedural justice), supervisor satisfaction (interactional justice), trust in supervisor and, turnover intensions.

In the present research, the main focus will be on the interactional justice component as this thesis explores contact with the leader. Based on previous research, the variable trust will be included as it has been previously related to justice (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011) and also, turnover as suggested by the meta-analysis by Cohen et al. (2001). Research by Colquitt and Rodell (2011), has shown that trust in the leader was greater when the leader was willing to be vulnerable and honest. Justice is an important construct, not only since it is related to the leader, but also, as suggested by the group-value model, trust validates group-memberships (Lind & Tyler, 1988). In other words, group membership is part of self-validation for individuals, if they perceive that they are treated fairly and their friends too, this results in greater trust in supervisor too as also suggested by deontic theories (Folger, 2001).

In particular, in the present experiment, I hypothesised that imagined contact with the leader would have stronger effects on interactional justice, organizational identification, turnover and trust in the group condition. Moreover, in this experiment, an additional variable vividness was included as a potential predictor of the effectiveness of the imagery task.

Vividness

Imagined contact has been defined as a mental simulation of the intergroup contact and it was suggested that this simulation could provoke cognitive and behavioural effects as direct contact (Crisp & Turner, 2009). Mental simulation has not been only used in imagined contact but, previously in other contexts such as sport and education (Feltz & Landers, 1983; Ratcliff et al., 1999). This technique has been showed to be very successful once the imagined scenario has been deeply elaborated. In fact, one way to be successful at the imagery is to perceive the imagined situation as vivid (Husnu & Crisp, 2010; Marks, 1989). Moreover, Husnu and Crisp (2010) suggested how the degree of elaboration of an imagined situation would have a subsequent effect on behaviour. In other words, the more

elaborated is the scenario, the more mental simulation will have impact on individuals' intentions. For example, Anderson (1983) conducted different experiments to test how imagining behavioural scripts will affect intentions. Among different variables that he tested, there was also vividness. His results supported the hypothesis that the more vivid the imagined scenario, the stronger future intentions will be. These results were also supported by other research that tested mental simulations of actions vs. reasons. Mental simulations of actions in dieting proved to be more successful than the mere idea of generating the process (Eyck, Labansat, Gresky, Dansereau, & Lord, 2006). In imagined contact research, Husnu and Crisp (2010) showed how vividness mediates the impact of elaboration on post-imagery intentions. Based on this literature, in the present experiment I tested the role of vividness in my imagined contact task.

Method

Participants

In order to determine the number of participants, the power analysis was performed a priori (set power = .80 and medium effect size $d = .50$). Participants were recruited online following the procedure in previous experiments. In total 257 participants took part, 11 were excluded from the final analysis because failed at completing the imagination task (e.g., they imagined being the Managing Director instead of meeting him/her). The number of participants was increased given the additional inclusion of variables (Maccallum et al., 1996). The mean age and standard deviation were $M = 38.44$, $SD = 10.88$. In the sample there were 54 male and 191 female participants, one participant indicated "other" in the gender question.

Design and procedure

The design and procedure followed identical approach as in previous experiments. All the participants were recruited online and rewarded with monetary compensation of £1. They were informed on the purpose of the study and debriefed at the end.

Independent variables. The independent variables used in this experiment were as in Experiment 9. Participants were randomly presented with either "alone" or "group" condition. They were asked to imagine meeting their managing director and the imagery task was followed by the vividness scale. As in previous experiments, participants were provided with writing up space where they could write down what they had imagined but also reinforce the imagery task.

Dependent variables. The dependent variables were vividness, Organizational Identification, Inclusion of the Other in Self, trust, interactional justice and turnover. The reliabilities of the respective scales were: vividness $\alpha = .89$ (4 items), OI $\alpha = .84$ (5 items), trust $\alpha = .91$ (6 items), justice $\alpha = .90$ (4 items) and turnover $\alpha = .82$ (6 items). The new variable vividness is a variable compounded of 4 items (e.g., "I found what I have imagined vivid") measured on a 7-item Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 7= strongly agree). The variable interactional justice is a variable compounded of 4 items that were measured on a 5-item Likert scale, where 1 = to a very little extent and 5 = to a very large extent. Examples of items of this scale are: "The Managing Director wants the best for the company" and "My Managing Director treats me with dignity" (Colquitt, 2001).

Results and Discussion

In order to test the hypothesis an independent t-test was run as a test to explore the differences between two conditions. The t-test showed no difference for the dependent variable vividness: "alone" $M = 5.20$, $SD = 1.04$, vs. "group" $M = 5.09$, $SD = 1.05$, $t(244) = .75$, $p = .46$, $d = .11$.

For the variable OI: "alone" $M = 3.63$, $SD = .74$, vs. "group" $M = 3.53$, $SD = .82$, $t(244) = 1.05$, $p = .29$, $d = .13$. Trust in leader was not significantly different for the two groups: "alone" $M = 5.55$, $SD = .81$, vs. "group" $M = 5.36$, $SD = .93$, $t(244) = 1.63$, $p = .10$, $d = .22$.

The perceived interactional justice with the leader was significantly different for the condition "alone" $M = 4.23$, $SD = .65$, vs. "group" $M = 4.01$, $SD = .69$, $t(234) = 2.49$, $p = .01$, $d = .32$. Counter to predictions, justice was perceived to be higher when participants had to imagine themselves meeting the Managing Director alone rather than in group. There was no significant difference for Turnover: "alone" $M = 2.90$, $SD = .86$, vs. "group" $M = 2.92$, $SD = .81$, $t(244) = -.14$, $p = .89$, $d = .02$.

For the Inclusion of the Other in Self scale there were no significant differences. For the pair You-Leader in the condition "alone": $M = 2.95$, $SD = 1.41$ vs. "group" $M = 2.99$, $SD = 1.47$, $t(241) = -2.1$, $p = .84$, $d = .03$; You/Organization: "alone" the $M = 3.82$, $SD = 1.38$, vs. "group" $M = 3.81$, $SD = 1.36$, $t(241) = .10$, $p = .92$, $d = .01$; You/Followers: "alone" $M = 4.55$, $SD = 1.40$ vs. "group" $M = 4.56$, $SD = 1.26$, $t(241) = -.02$, $p = .98$, $d = .01$; Leader/Organization: "alone" $M = 5.00$, $SD = 1.66$, vs. "group" $M = 4.96$, $SD = 1.68$, $t(241) = .16$, $p = .87$, $d = .02$.

Table 5. 3 Means and SDs for key variables.

	Variable	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.	Organizational Ident.	3.41	.81	.35**	.44**	.24**	.18**	-.46**	.40**	-.07	.38**	.13*
2.	You/Leader	2.97	1.44	-	.55**	.31**	.29**	-.31**	.42**	.13	.30**	.23**
3.	You/Organization	3.81	1.37	-	-	.48**	.36**	-.38**	.30**	-.01	.16*	.12
4.	You/Followers	4.56	1.33	-	-	-	.42**	.08	.23**	.15	.28**	-.02
5.	Organization/Leader	4.98	1.67	-	-	-	-	-.04	.37**	-.01	.23**	.18**
6.	Turnover	3.02	.85	-	-	-	-	-	-.21*	-.03	-.27**	-.13*
7.	Trust	5.46	.87	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.01	.56**	.42**
8.	justice	4.13	.68	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.23**
9.	vividness	5.15	1.05	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Note: $N = 256$, *$p<.05$, ** $p<.01$. The condition is a categorical variable, 1=alone, 2=group.

Additional analysis on imagined indirect contact and direct contact.

As in Experiment 9 an exploratory analysis was carried out to compare those who have *actually met* the Managing Director vs. those who have not. There is a significant difference for those who had previously met the MD, $M = 5.36$, $SD = .85$ vs. those who have not $M = 4.92$, $SD = .98$, $t\ (106) = 1.96$, $p = .05$, $d = .50$, (group condition). These results suggest that the imagination task is reinforced if there is previous direct contact with the leader. Additional analysis on procedural justice revealed a significant difference between conditions. In particular, for those who had *not* met the MD "alone" $M = 4.19$, $SD = .64$, while "group" $M = 3.93$, $SD = .62$, $t\ (125) = 2.33$, $p = .02$, $d = .41$. The means for participants who have actually met the MD are: "alone" $M = 4.26$, $SD = .68$, "group" $M = 4.09$, $SD = .78$, $t\ (116) = 1.25$, $p = .22$, $d = .23$. These results suggest that imagining meeting the leader alone led to perceived increased fairness but only for the participants who never met the leader.

In the last experiment, imagined contact with the leader whether with other employees or alone did not increase organizational identification, trust or reduce turnover. However, from the results it was observed that the perceived justice of the leader was greater when participants had to imagine themselves alone rather than in group. Considering the group engagement model proposed by the Blader and Tyler (2009) that suggests how people include the group in the self-concept. When people integrate their group into self results in overlapped identities and therefore concern for group's welfare as their own. This behaviour is usually justified by for example need to reduce uncertainty, fostering self-worth and making sense of situations. In terms of the present results, it could be noted that imagining to meet the leader in group, actually resulted in the opposite effects, where interactional justice was lower in group vs. alone. Identification with the organization was not significantly different for the two conditions, suggesting that

inclusion in the self was perhaps shifted or influenced by perceived uncertainty and therefore resulted in greater perceived justice with the leader alone.

Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964; Masterson et al., 2000) proposes that employees develop trust and interaction with others over time and usually they are concerned with how others are treated as that is how they will be treated too. In particular, interactional justice is a result of the leader-member exchange relationship. He, Fehr, Yam, Long, and Hao, (2017) show that the extent to which the leader is fair in their dealing with followers is a crucial element in perceived interactional justice. If the leader differentiates the treatment among different group members, this might turn into a lower perceived justice as a result of adjusted behaviour in favour of the group members rather than the leader. This literature seems to explain the lower perceived justice in group vs. alone condition when in the present research participants were asked to imagine meeting the leader individually or collectively.

Lastly, the deontic perspective (Folger, 2001) suggests that people not only like to be treated fairly but, more importantly, they like their group members to be treated fairly too. In other words, the perception of justice from the deontic perspective is not merely self-centred but, it is a result of a collective perception. This theory could also support the findings and it could be observed that when participants were alone with the leader, they perceive higher justice (self-centred) while, when in group (not self-centred) this justice is a result of how the justice is distributed in the group as whole.

This experiment did not reveal support for the hypothesis; however, additional analysis revealed support for the notion of vividness as a crucial element in the imagination process. In fact, the imagined contact was more successful when there was pre-existing direct contact, supporting the levels of higher vividness for the participants who have met the leader. This also, supports the effect of imagined contact which can be stronger, greater the vividness of the scenario. As research from Husnu and Crisp (2010)

suggests, previous actual contact enhances the vividness and the availability of a particular image. Prior contact not only facilitates imagined contact but also engagement in future contact with the outgroup.

General discussion

In the present chapter, imagined contact with the leader as an alternative to direct contact has been explored. Three experiments replicated partially the idea of indirect contact with the leader building on the work of Meleady and Crisp (2017). With the present findings, there was no additional support for the use of imagined contact with the leader. The first experiment (Experiment 8), tested the imagined contact with the leader and if this approach could enhance positive outcomes through the salient membership. The results from the first experiment showed no difference in terms of organizational identification or trust in the leader when the imagined contact was with the group vs. alone. In the second experiment (Experiment 9) the focus shifted to an organizational sample with participants who actually might have close direct contact with their leader. In this experiment, however, it was observed that the manipulation of indirect contact was successful when there was previous direct contact. In order to explore this further, in the last experiment (Experiment 10), vividness of the imagination was measured additionally to other dependent variables. Through this experiment, it was possible to understand that not only interactional justice with the leader is a result of an interpersonal relationship with the leader, but also that direct contact with the leader seems a necessary pre-requisite for a better relationship with the leader himself/herself. However, in the present research, interactional justice differentiation was not measured and manipulated as a variable, therefore it is difficult to say if high or low differentiation was perceived in the participants and in their organizations. Future research could focus on the interactional justice as a moderator between the actual contact with the leader and other organizational outcomes (e.g., trust, organizational identification or turnover).

Moreover, from the present findings, it is interesting to note that perceived justice from the leader was greater for the participants who had not actually met their managing director. These results could suggest that imagined contact might be successful for those followers who have not had previous contact with the leader, as a precontact tool. Imagined contact with the leader could instil greater perceived justice from the leader when there is limited contact. In the opposite case, when there is previous meeting with the leader, the imagined contact might be less effective as followers had direct experience with the leader.

Additionally, these findings support previous theory on imagined contact that prior positive direct contact facilitates the imagined contact (greater vividness). In fact, future research could explore if the imagined contact with the leader, where previous negative experience is present, could have a positive effect. The present research aimed to find alternative ways of contact with the leader because in the organizational context the direct contact with the leader such as CEO is limited. Moreover, given the realities of the CEO as a distant figure and on top of the organizational pyramid, intergroup anxiety could play a role. In fact, Crisp and Turner (2009) suggest how this type of anxiety could limit prior direct contact and therefore result in ineffective imagined contact. In future research intergroup anxiety could be measured additionally to the prior contact experiences.

Chapter 6

General Discussion

Abstract

In this chapter, I provide a summary of the findings in the present thesis. Following a discussion of limitations, I propose future research ideas to address these limitations as a guide for future work. As a result of the processes illuminated in the current thesis, I propose a new theoretical framework that draws upon intergroup processes to attempt to help explain leader-member relations. In particular, I argue that followers could preserve their distinctive identity by ensuring an optimal level of social distance with the leader. In particular, certain moderators (e.g., identification and threat) could explain this preference for a more distant (non-prototypical) leader. This process will be displayed graphically on a vertical dimension (leader-followers) compared to the baseline horizontal dimension (intergroup comparison).

Summary of findings

This thesis aimed to integrate social and organizational psychology approaches to find alternative ways to reduce the social distance between leader and followers. In the literature on leadership, it is clear that the main approach to leadership has been through the analysis of personality traits (for a review see Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009), dyadic leader-member exchange relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) and charismatic or transformational leadership theories (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir et al., 1993). Recently, the leadership literature has shifted from the individualistic to the intergroup leadership through the Social Identity Theory of Leadership (SITL; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). This theoretical framework applies the knowledge from social psychology theories like intergroup processes, self-categorization and distinctiveness and, integrates it with leadership. The SITL defines leadership as a group process between the leader and followers, where the leader is considered to be the ingroup member who promotes values and goals of the group, and in this way can exercise power. The importance of SITL comes with its focus on both leader and followers which allows the definition of leadership as a result of the intergroup process with the group they all belong to. Although this definition does per se integrate social (intergroup processes) and organizational (leadership) approaches, the main novelty in the present thesis was the integration of leadership and indirect contact methodologies. Indirect contact is a pertinent approach to apply to leadership as often leaders need to find alternative ways when they are not always able to nurture direct contact with the followers.

This idea of indirect contact has previously been described through the concept of *leader distance* (Antonakis & Atwater 2002). Leader distance has been classified as three main types: physical, social and the frequency of interaction between leader and followers. Psychological distance, for example, is defined as the perceived distance in terms of similarity with the other. However, these authors mainly focused on the review of different

definitions of leader distance but, did not test experimentally the concept within the Social Identity of Leadership framework. With regard to measuring the distance, intergroup contact theorists (Gaertner, Dovidio, & Bachman, 1996; Pettigrew, 1998; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006) have always considered group relations in terms of ingroup/outgroup processes. This idea was applied here within the group process defined by SITL (i.e., leadership). Here, I applied different theories and tested several approaches to reduce the social distance between leader and followers. In particular, this thesis explored multiple ways of indirect contact through videos, e-mail communication and, imagined contact.

How leaders communicate the idea of shared identity was explored in Chapter 3. In this chapter, I explored how leader communication of shared identity could enhance organizational identification. The idea was tested using video communication, inspired by leaders such as Steve Jobs and Satya Nadella. These CEOs annually present their new products to a wide audience while these presentations are worldwide broadcasted. The first experimental chapter (Chapter 3) therefore tested the hypothesis that a leader interacting with an audience would lead to greater support for the leader in terms of organizational identification and turnover intentions. The results did not support this hypothesis. Further experiments revealed that the reason for the null findings was not a lack of attention (Experiment 2) nor the audience (Experiment 3) nor the sample characteristics (Experiment 4).

In Chapter 4, I used the speech from Chapter 3 adapted in the form of an e-mail and tested the impact of using different pronouns in leader communications. This change in methodology was necessary due to the unsuccessful previous four experiments where videos appeared less realistic and less confounding variables were present (e.g., charisma, the voice of the leader, physical presence and absence of other social actors). The aim of this experiment was to test the SITL of shared identity through the leader's rhetoric ("we") and with a more prevalent type of communication mean in the organizations (i.e., e-mail).

Findings in Experiment 5 showed an opposite pattern of results from what was expected: Participants preferred the leader who promoted the individualistic rhetoric. In particular, participants felt closer to the leader and the organization in the individualistic condition (measured through IOS). Moreover, the turnover intentions were lower when the leader used “I”-referenced language rather than “we”. These results are interesting because imply an opposite pattern of results from the current literature (e.g., Steffens & Haslam, 2013). In particular, Steffens and Haslam (2013) found a significant difference in political elections was associated with the use of "we" while there was no significant effect for the use of "I" pronoun. Social identity approach to leadership would suggest the use of "we" pronouns as in this way leaders can craft the common identity among followers.

To test whether this preference could be explained in terms of individualistic variables, I included in Experiment 6, the variable Personal Need for Structure (PNS). This variable measures the preference for an organized and structured reality which could explain that followers who are high in PNS are also more likely to prefer the collectivistic leaders (i.e., prototypical). In fact, previous research shows how individuals who are high in PNS prefer a prototypical leader as a result of the cognitive accessibility of a stereotypical leader as a result of their preference for a structured world. However, even in this case, PNS did not explain further the results from Experiment 5, the results were not significant.

In the following Experiment 7, I tested another moderator: Individualism and Collectivism cultural orientation. This is also a variable that tests for individualistic attitudes that I expected might explain the preference for the leader rhetoric (individualistic vs. collectivistic). In particular, the hypothesis was that people high in individualism will prefer the individualistic leader rhetoric while, those high in collectivism, will prefer the collectivistic leader rhetoric. This hypothesis was not supported.

After exploring these different approaches in leader communication, I decided to test leader distance through another form of indirect contact (imagined contact) because this form of contact was shown to be successful in previous research (Meleady & Crisp, 2017). In this set of three experiments (Chapter 5), it was tested whether imagined contact with the leader could instil positive outcomes as tested in previous experiments on organizational identification, trust, authenticity and turnover intentions. In particular, keeping in mind the logic of previous experiments, in the imagined contact conditions I manipulated again the idea of collectiveness and group membership when asking the participants to imagine meeting the leader alone or with a group of other members.

The first experiment in Chapter 5 tested imagined contact with the leader in the academic context. The results showed a non-significant difference between conditions on the dependent variables. The only variable where there was a significant trend was the Inclusion of the Other in Self for the relationship "You/Leader", where participants felt closer to the leader in the group condition. To explore further these results, two additional experiments tested imagined contact with the actual Managing Director participants were working for. Moreover, here we collected data also on direct contact in comparison to the experimental indirect contact situation. The results suggested a trend in significance for those who have actually met their Managing Director and increased Organizational Identification in the "group" condition.

Limitations and future research ideas

While the present thesis aimed to extend the current literature and proposed to answer the relevant research questions, there are several limitations that need to be outlined. Specifically, the experiments containing video material may have been limited in different ways. For example, participants might have expected to see bigger crowds instead of just three employees. These experiments were lacking in a more realistic and stereotypical context of a leader who is being supported by a significantly bigger audience.

However, participants could have imagined that they are part of a board meeting, which usually includes a smaller group of people. On the other hand, the extended contact hypothesis does not necessarily limit the number of cross-group friendships, therefore for a successful extended contact paradigm even three followers should have been enough (Zhou et al., 2018).

Another limitation might have been the leader's speech. In the video, the leader addressed past achievements and the plans for the future of the organization. The focus on the future might have provoked feelings of uncertainty or threat by the unknown and therefore participants did not feel close enough to the leader who promotes shared identity. This has been suggested by Rast (2015) who showed how leader preference can be influenced by contextual variables such as uncertainty. When feelings of self-uncertainty arise in followers, they might prefer a non-prototypical leader (e.g., autocratic or narcissistic). In fact, in the present thesis, we did not manipulate or test for the contextual variables and this could constitute a future research plan.

Furthermore, the leader in the videos was young, which is not the usual appearance of a CEO. The average age of a CEO in the US is 58 years old and this has actually increased significantly since 2018 ("Crist Kolder Volatility Report," 2019). A recent review from Antonakis and Eubanks, (2017) suggests that people infer leaders effectiveness in terms of face-ism (Olivola & Todorov, 2010). Face-ism is the heuristic decision making of preference for the face based on the mere appearance. Antonakis and Eubanks (2017) suggest that this process is evolutionary imprinted and more importantly is the process that people adopt when making choices for distant leaders. In other words, when followers have limited knowledge about the leader, they will make inferences based on his/her appearance. This research could suggest that in our experiments, seeing a young CEO for the first time, elicited in participants little likeableness or that he did not represent fully the idea of a leader, merely based on his appearances. Previous research also

suggested how people infer personality traits about people based on face observation (Hassin & Trope, 2000). However, in the present thesis, it is difficult to understand what participants might have perceived and if the CEO did not possess specific leadership traits, therefore this could be an argument of future research.

Classic literature on social priming and accessibility of categories suggests that priming activates knowledge that is usually bound to stereotypes which results in different social behaviour (Higgins, Bargh, & Lombardi, 1985; Tory Higgins, Rholes, & Jones, 1977). Similarly, priming social context can affect subsequent helping behaviour (Garcia, Weaver, Moskowitz, & Darley, 2002). The example from Garcia et al. (2002) shows how simply priming the idea of being in group, which reminds of crowds, predicts subsequent lower helping behaviour or bystander effect. Keeping in mind this effect, it could be inferred that in the present thesis, observing the leader being surrounded by a group of people would activate the knowledge of being in group but deindividuated from the social context and therefore, inhibit intention of interaction and engagement with the leader.

In Chapter 4, I changed the methodology given the limitations abovementioned. However, even the design of newer experiments (5, 6, and 7) also had limitations. In particular, the main dichotomous variable manipulated was the email (individualistic vs. collectivistic). Current literature suggests that collective language is usually attributed to charismatic leaders (Platow, Knippenberg, Haslam, Knippenberg, & Spears, 2006). In Experiment 5 the charismatic leadership style, however, was not attributed to the leader who used "we" language. Participants did not rate more charismatic the leader who was promoting the collectiveness through pronoun “we” vs. “I” as suggested by previous literature. Recent research from Steffens, Mols, Haslam, and Okimoto (2016) showed the importance of multiple prototypical identities of the leader. They suggest that if the leader identifies with and s/he is prototypical of multiple groups (i.e., project team, department and organization), the leader is more likely to be endorsed by the followers. In reference

to the present thesis, it could be argued that the CEO in the present experiments was perceived as prototypical of the organization for some of the participants, but for others who identified for example with the marketing department (as implied in the description of Flash Media), they were less likely to feel close to the CEO. This research could also be a starting point for future research where leader identity could be manipulated in terms of single or multiple identities (i.e., department or organization). They also suggest that being a non-prototypical leader does not necessarily mean that the leader is destined to fail but, is important to consider the concept of multiple identities and how this could help non-prototypical leaders to promote specific identity that followers are part of. In other words, it seems that the existence of multidimensional identities could allow leaders to find similarities along different categories and promote the identity that followers feel closer to. In the words of the self-categorization theory, it seems that leader's identity should be flexible depending on the social context which reminds back to the idea of uncertainty and perceived threat as suggested by Rast (2015). For example, a similar methodology with videos, portraying leader's storytelling of personal experiences to increase leader's authenticity, has been used by Weischer, Weibler and Peterson (2013). They also used videos of a CEO who delivers leadership in a time of change. Their results supported the hypothesis suggesting that the leader's authenticity is related to the leader's enactment, life storytelling and trust perceived in followers. In other words, a leader would be perceived as more authentic if through his/her personal anecdotes followers could relate in terms of similarity or in other words, shared self-categorization is essential for this outcome. This theory potentially could suggest a methodological change in future experiments where the leader's speech could include some personal anecdotes that followers might relate to.

In Experiment 7 (Chapter 4) the variable authenticity was included to test in which condition the leader was perceived as more authentic. Specifically, as suggested by

previous research (Steffens et al., 2016), it was hypothesised that a leader who promotes the collective “we” is more likely to be perceived as authentic. However, in our experiment, whether the leader was promoting "we"-referencing language or "I", there was no difference in the Authentic Leadership Scale (Gardner et al., 2005; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008). It should be reminded, however, that in our experiments, participants had to imagine they are part of a fictitious company, maybe if the experiment was conducted in a real organization, we could expect different results. In fact, the pool of our participants did come with an organizational background, however, the variety of organizational structures might have led to different imagined scenarios. Given this limitation, in Chapter 5, I tested for the variable vividness through the imagery task. This variable measures how vivid the imagined scenario is. In other words, higher scores on vividness scale will be recorded if our participants elaborated vividly the organizational scenario. In fact, the results did support this hypothesis, which in turn, supports the current literature on imagined contact (Crisp & Turner 2012). In this Chapter, a set of three experiments explored the use of imagined contact with the leader as indirect contact technique. Previous research from Meleady and Crisp (2016) showed how this technique can be an effective tool in the organizational context. However, in the present thesis, a variation of Meleady and Crisp (2016) was attempted but not successful. In Experiments 8, 9 and 10 imagined contact was manipulated through a dichotomous variable which asked participants to imagine meeting the leader alone or in a group.

Lastly, some limitations are common to all the experiments in this thesis. For example, all the experiments have an online design and data collection of a specific population (mostly WEIRD - Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich and Democratic). This thesis was focused mostly on the online type of data collection. This approach offers data over a short time; however, someone might argue that online participants might not represent the participants in organizations, (for different critiques and justification of using

online data see Lowry, D'Arcy, Hammer, & Moody, 2016). In particular, using Prolific academic, the sample population is mostly WEIRD which constitutes one of the common limitations in behavioural research (Henrich, Heine, & Norenzayan, 2010). Researchers have suggested that 80% of behavioural research population is constituted by WEIRD population while it only represents 12% of the worldwide population. Therefore, it is important to keep in mind this limitation and be aware that the real organizational sample might be much more varied.

Moreover, I have assessed the questionnaires with mostly attitudinal variables (except turnover intentions). These variables are usually measured on Likert scales which are reliable ways of assessing participants responses as much as other behavioural scales (Maurer & Pierce, 1998). However, future research could address some other behavioural variables. Assessing questionnaires online provides data in short time and most importantly allows to generalize the results to a larger population. Given the organizational constraints such as large-sized companies and accessibility to leaders (i.e., CEO) online approach and attitudinal measures seemed the appropriate alternative. This limitation directly leads to the observation that the present thesis did not consider qualitative research methodology. Qualitative methodology, however, would have been more appropriate if data were collected in a real organization and there was a necessity to understand specific behaviours from a group of employees. The quantitative approach allows to understand and generalize cognitive processes of a wide population.

Theoretical Contributions

To address leader distance and the contact with the leader, in the present thesis a different approach was proposed. In particular, as previously mentioned, I tried to reduce the social distance between leader and followers following theories on intergroup contact. In the present thesis, it was tested how through different means of communication this similarity would bring leader and followers closer. However, the results showed

unexpected and opposite results to the current literature (Experiment 5, Chapter 4). I observed that when the leader promoted individualistic rhetoric, followers were more likely to stay in the organization and felt more similar to both the organization and the leader. To explain these results, here I propose an alternative theoretical approach to leadership.

When defining leader distance, different definitions have been proposed and Antonakis and Atwater (2002) in their review summarized those in terms of three categories of distance: physical, social and frequency of interaction between the leader and followers. The original work on which Antonakis and Atwater's is based is from Napier and Ferris (1993) who actually introduced the definition of leader distance not only as physical but also, social distance. In particular, social distance has been defined as the psychological distance, power distance and similarity of "beliefs, values, or attitudes" (p. 332, Napier & Ferris, 1993; p. 681 Antonakis & Atwater). How leader influence is bounded by distance has been explored by the review by Antonakis and Atwater (2002). Some researchers suggest how the only way to build trust with followers is through frequent and meaningful direct contact (Kacmar, Witt, Zivnuska, & Gully, 2003). Others, instead, suggest that sometimes more distant leaders are necessary to restore order and provide leadership per se (Schoel, Bluemke, Mueller, & Stahlberg, 2011).

Other leadership theories have considered leader distance through the definition of leader prototypicality. Prototypicality of the leader can be considered as similarity between the target (i.e., leader) and group membership (i.e., organization). In particular, Social Identity Theory of Leadership (Hogg, 2001a; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003) defines leaders as the prototypical group member who as such can influence and promote the group's interests. A prototypical leader is someone who is similar to other ingroup members and able to embody a group's identity, values and goals. Being prototypical is often associated with different beneficial processes for leadership such as influence, social

attractiveness, trust and attributions of higher status (Giessner, van Knippenberg, van Ginkel, & Sleebos, 2013b; van Dijke & de Cremer, 2008b). For example, van Dijke and de Cremer (2008) suggest how a prototypical leader is perceived as fairer by followers who are highly identified with the organization. However, it has been observed that non-prototypical leaders can gain the necessary support in times of uncertainty or threat. Different moderators have been identified when explaining leader preference. In times of instability, followers prefer someone who will reduce the uncertainty, not necessarily someone who is representative of the group (Nevicka, De Hoogh, Van Vianen, & Ten Velden, 2013; Rast, Gaffney, Hogg, & Crisp, 2012; Rast, Hogg, & Tomory, 2015). Other research suggests that self-esteem can be a possible moderator of this preference. In particular, in uncertain times, people with low self-esteem prefer an autocratic leader as this type of leader can be an exemplar of trust and hope that compensates for the unstable situation (Schoel et al., 2011).

A graphical representation of the idea of prototypicality of the leader can be intended on a vertical dimension as in Figure 6.1. As it is possible to observe in the figure, the more prototypical the leader is, the more s/he will be closer to the followers. The idea of intergroup distance has been proposed in other theories that have mostly focused on the reduction of intergroup bias. Conflict resolution techniques and prejudice reduction would be approached with the idea of intergroup similarity (Gaertner & Dovidio, 2000; Gaertner et al., 1996).

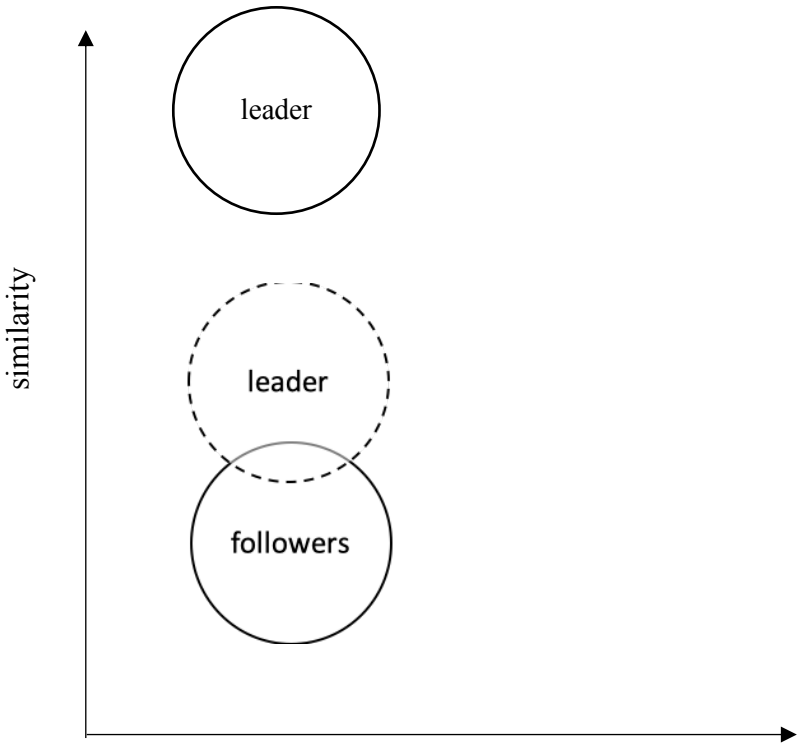

Figure 6.1 Similarity between leader and followers in SITL.

However, other researchers observed that distance between groups can be understood as well in terms of semantic distance (Meleady, Crisp, Hodson, & Earle, 2019). They suggested how instead of focusing on prototypicality and counterstereotipicality, contact researchers should consider the cognitive demand of contact in terms of *semantic distance.* In particular, when there is low semantic distance between the target and group prototype, a member of the group is considered to be prototypical, while when there is high semantic distance, s/he is more atypical. In other words, the prototypicality of group members can be intended along a continuum and therefore in terms of semantic distance, not only in terms of dichotomous categorization, prototypical vs. non-prototypical.

Moreover, considering leadership as an intergroup process it is possible to note how in intergroup research sometimes counter-intuitive findings were observed when researchers tried to reduce the distance between groups. In particular, when researchers

tested how to reduce distances (e.g., prejudice) between ingroup and outgroup when enhancing similarities, people showed a negative response to the outgroup (Crisp, Stone, & Hall, 2006; Jetten et al., 2001). These results are explained through the social identity theory of threat (Branscombe, Ellemers, Spears, & Doosje, 1999). When people feel like their ingroup identity has been threatened, they will try to restore their positive identity shifting their focus on distinctive elements that differentiate the ingroup from the outgroup. In fact, Jetten, Spears, and Manstead (1997) suggest that an increase in ingroup bias is a direct result of strong ingroup identification. In later experiments Jetten, Spears and Manstead (2001) showed how ingroup identification moderates bias toward the outgroup. High identifiers showed intergroup bias when presented with a low distinctive group, while low identified individuals did not show a similar pattern. This is justified also by the Social Identity Theory which suggests how similarity enhances comparability and therefore, bias (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Moreover, in terms of organizational context Jetten et al., (2001) suggests that groups at work might feel threatened when they are very committed to their ingroup, when employees are less involved in the group, they might not perceive the threat from other groups.

The following research from Jetten et al., (2001) has brought evidence in common ingroup contexts where ingroup identification was identified as the moderator between recategorization and intergroup bias (Crisp et al., 2006). These findings suggest how being committed to the ingroup when perceiving a threat from a similar group could lead to intergroup bias. The Common Ingroup Identity Model proposes that through recategorization when a superordinate group (e.g., "we") is being activated is possible to reduce intergroup bias. However, individuals can be also reluctant to the idea of a superordinate group and recategorization can lead to increased bias. Intergroup processes can be graphically displayed on a horizontal dimension of similarity as showed in Figure 6.2.

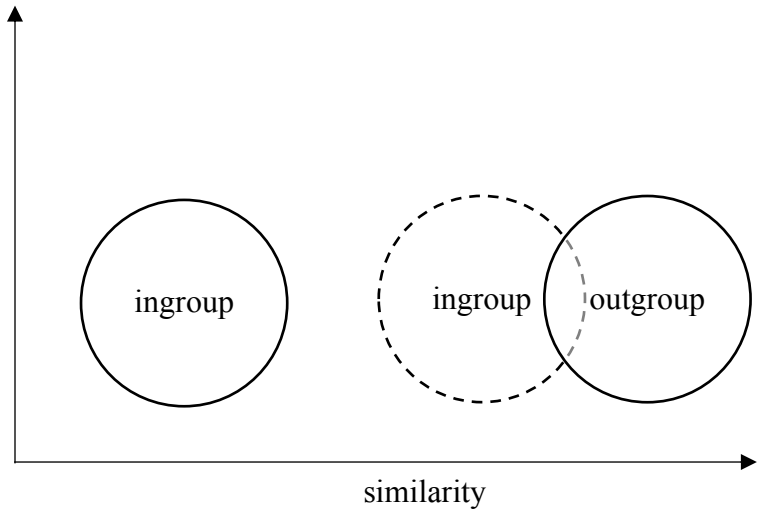

Figure 6. 2 Intergroup theories: similarity between ingroup and outgroup

Given the above-described literature on leadership research and intergroup processes, I propose the understanding of leadership preferences on a vertical dimension of comparison associated to the usual understanding of intergroup processes on the horizontal dimension (ingroup vs. outgroup). As noted above, similarity might lead to preferred distinctiveness of the ingroup from the outgroup. Similar processes seem to be involved in leadership. In particular, from the present findings, it has been observed that reducing distances and increasing similarity leads to the need for distinctiveness in followers. Participants preferred the leader who was using "I" (high semantic distance). While, when the leader was using "we" (low semantic distance), participants preferred to be more distant from the leader. In other words, followers do prefer to keep a distinctive identity from the leader. This could be further explained with additional moderators such as identification or threat as suggested by previous intergroup researchers (Jetten et al., 2001; Crisp et al., 2006). For example, Hogg (2001) suggests that prototypicality is sensitive to contextual changes, which could lead to decreased prototypicality over time and reduced consensuality among followers. Therefore, this new theoretical approach

could justify why followers prefer sometimes distant leaders and future research could identify under which conditions.

The new theoretical approach is presented graphically in Figure 6.3, where intergroup and leadership processes are integrated on two dimensions (vertical vs. horizontal similarity).

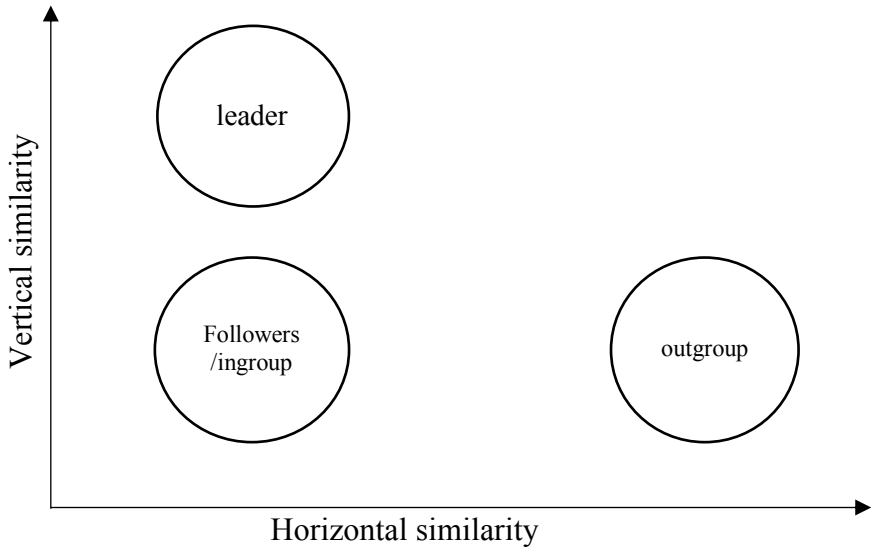

Figure 6. 3 A Leadership Distinctiveness Theory

This model shows how the same distinctiveness motivations that compel people to want to see ingroups as more different from the outgroups also exists "vertically" between leaders and groups (i.e., followers). This need for distinctiveness can arise both from leaders or followers depending on which group has perceived their identity to be threatened. In the case of contextual variables, when there is perceived uncertainty, a leader could become more distanced in order to preserve his/her identity and in this way exercise power, restore order and credibility in uncertain times. Therefore, as in intergroup contact research uncertainty and identification have been identified as moderators of need for distinctiveness, here I propose that similar processes can be applied in the leadership literature, including similarity intended in terms of semantic distance. This framework

may help structure future research exploring the impact of leader distinctiveness on leader social influence.

Applications

Findings from the present thesis led to theoretical advancements for the understanding of leadership subject; however, if those are correct, then it is possible to advance some practical implications as well. In different situations, leaders are bound to communicate in direct or indirect ways with their followers. Through this thesis, I have tested some of the means that leaders might use, and the results provided insightful practical implications.

The first and interesting insight from the present thesis is that leader rhetoric can be very impactful on followers' perceptions of his/her success. How leaders influence followers through rhetoric is not new, however, most scholars have focused on charismatic leadership practices (Conger, 1991; Davis & Gardner, 2012; Den Hartog & Verburg, 1997). These researchers have suggested focussing on collective identity and efficacy as some of the main characteristics of a charismatic leader. These theories have contributed to widespread beliefs and practices that would advise leaders in business or political advocacy to focus on the collective type of rhetoric. However, from the findings in the present thesis is possible to advance alternative suggestions to leaders. Here, the results suggest that collectivistic rhetoric does not always lead to endorsed leadership practice. Followers, under specific conditions, prefer a leader who focuses on individualistic rhetoric. As suggested by previous literature as well, leaders who focus on similarities are not always preferred (Rast et al., 2015). It is important that leaders consider situational factors when addressing their followers. For example, in times of uncertainty, leaders should consider that followers need to reduce these feelings of instability and fear, therefore rhetoric that embraces the collectiveness might not be appropriate. Both in organizational and in political contexts, uncertainty or threat can easily undermine the

identity of the followers. For example, if followers identify strongly with a specific group (i.e., department or political party) when the leader tries to promote shared identity, s/he might be perceived as an out-group member and therefore rejected from the already established ingroup. This idea has been supported by research on intergroup leadership which suggests to leaders to promote intergroup relational identity in uncertain times (Rast, Hogg, & van Knippenberg, 2018). Intergroup relational identity refers to a form of social identity that promotes a parallel relationship with self and ingroup and outgroup (Hogg, van Knippenberg, & Rast, 2012).

In a more recent study, researchers show how the identity threat plays an important role in preference for leaders promoting intergroup relational identity than leaders who promote collective identity (Rast et al., 2018). This is a common scenario in political contexts where the leader can be from a right or a left party (e.g., Conservative or Liberal). A leader should be able to address the followers in a way that their identity is not threatened and be able to reduce the uncertainty. Especially, in the political scenario, when a leader from a Conservative party tries to convince members of the opposite party to vote for him/her. In this case, the leader should be able to advocate in a way that Liberals do not feel their identity undermined while s/he might be more successful in promoting a different (supraordinate) social identity (e.g., British population).

In terms of the newly proposed theoretical model, leaders should not only be aware that their rhetoric does not provoke identity threats, but more importantly, keep in mind when uncertainty occurs, they should promote themselves as individuals who can restore order and reduce the uncertainty. In particular, leaders could promote their distinctive identity through a language that instils social distance because followers might express need for leadership per se and feel the need to keep their ingroup distant from the outgroup. Similarly, in the organizational context, leaders could keep a social distance, enhancing their individuality, to reduce feelings of uncertainty in followers.

Concluding Comments

The present thesis supports the idea that leaders have the power to influence their followers through their rhetorical skills (Hogg, van Knippenberg, & Rast, 2012). However, most importantly, it has demonstrated the importance of leaders' rhetoric and how it impacts followers' identification with the organization. It is important to understand that leaders can reduce the distance with followers when embracing the collectiveness, while s/he has to keep in mind followers' identity. Cheney (1983) reports words of Ervin Goffman: "the so-called 'I' is merely a unique combination of partially conflicting 'corporate's we' (p. 90). He suggests how followers do identify not only at the individual level but also at the collective as part of the organization. This suggests as previous research has identified, Organizational Identification is an important asset, however, it is important to keep in mind as Cheney continues "an individual who is inclined to identify with an organization will be open to persuasive efforts from various sources within that unit." (p. 91). As much leaders play an important role in the organization, followers' identification is also crucial. Therefore, a successful leader will know how to persuade the followers, keeping in mind multiple follower's identities. As John Maxwell said, "leaders must be close enough to relate to others but far enough ahead to motivate them".

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Appendix A
Experiment 1 Materials

Research: A study of mental imagery
Participant information and consent form

Please take a few minutes to read the following information on this research carefully before you agree to participate. If at any time you have a question regarding the study, please feel free to ask the researcher who will provide more information.

This study is being conducted by Kristina Habjan, a PhD student at Durham University. It aims to investigate the effects of mental imagery.
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If you do agree to participate in the study, all responses and questionnaires will be treated confidentially. Your name and identifying information will be kept securely and separately from the rest of your questionnaire. Data will be stored for a maximum of five years after the study. Once the data is analysed, a report of the findings may be submitted for publication.

To signify your voluntary participation please complete the consent form below.
Please select the boxes to confirm that you agree to each statement.

- ✓ I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for this study and have had the opportunity to ask any questions

- ✓ I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw from the study at any time without explanation

- ✓ I agree to take part in this study

  If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of this study, please inform the Chair of the Psychology Research Ethics Committee (via the Psychology Departmental Office) in writing, providing a detailed account of your concern.

Please read the following extract closely:

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Now watch carefully this video of the CEO of Flash Media giving his annual debrief. After the video, you will be asked to answer some questions.

Manipulations of independent variable:
*** VIDEO *** randomly presented to participants

AUDIENCE – The video is available online through the following link:
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Qs7cFMdvJ6o

VS.
NO AUDIENCE - The video is available online through the following link:
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=a8VxQobnKxY&t=3s

Measures
ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION (Randsley de Moura et al. 2009):

Thinking about the video you have just seen please now try to imagine that you are one of the employees of Flash Media and indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

Strongly agree Somewhat agree Neither agree or disagree Somewhat disagree Strongly disagree
1 2 3 4 5

- I feel strong ties with this Flash Media
- Flash Media is important to me
- I feel proud to be a member of this Flash Media
- I feel a strong sense of belonging to Flash Media
- Belonging to Flash Media is an important part of my self-image
- I often regret that I belong to Flash Media
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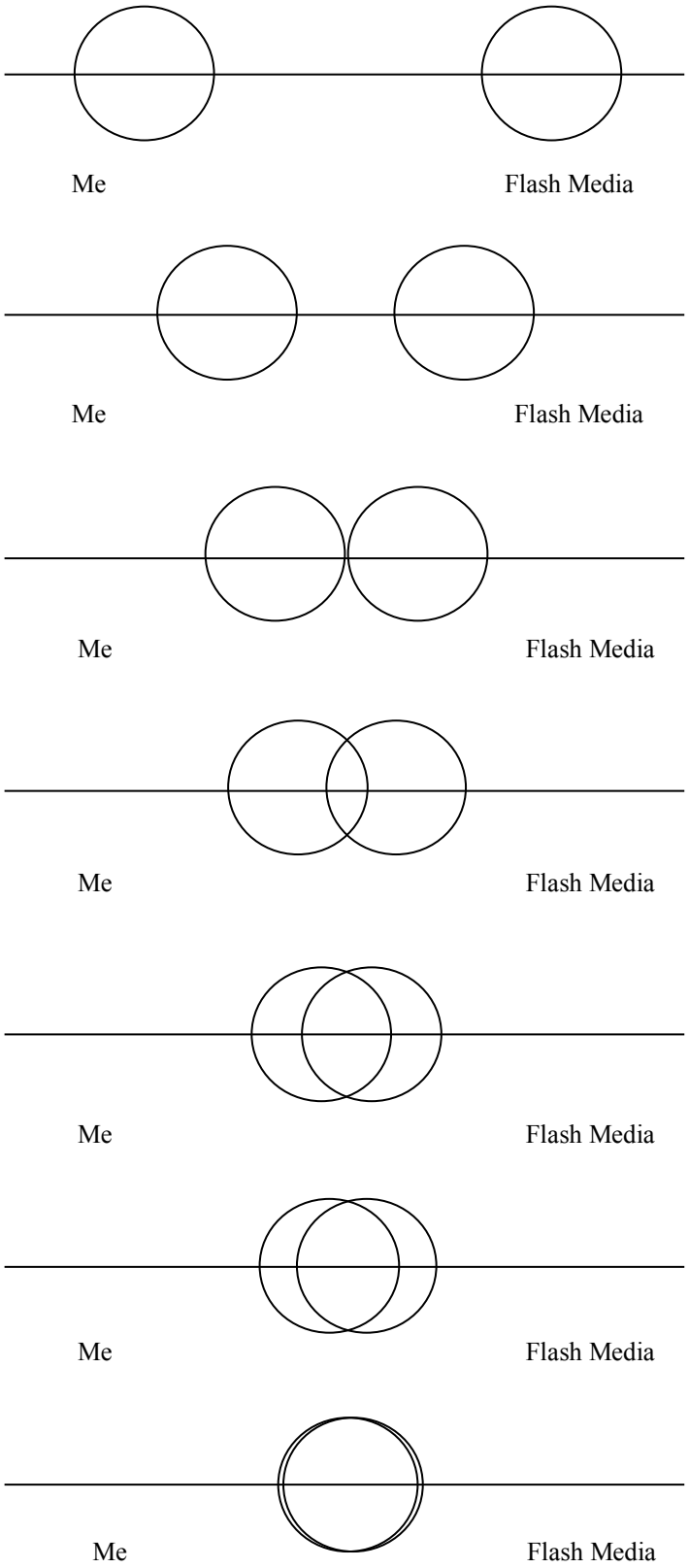
INCLUSION OF THE OTHER IN SELF (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000).
Insert in the box below which of the following figures best represent the relationship between you and Flash Media.



TURNOVER INTENTION SCALE (Roodt, 2004)

Imagine you`re an employee of Flash Media. Imagine that you have worked at Flash Media and that you have just watched the video of the CEO and now you are thinking of your position at Flash Media. Answer at the following questions:

1. How often have you considered leaving your job at Flash Media?
   Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

2. To what extent is your current job satisfying your personal needs at Flash Media?
   To no extent 1-2-3-4-5 to very large extent

3. How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at Flash Media to achieve your personal work-related goals?
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4. How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?
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5. How likely are you to accept another job then Flash Media, at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?
   Higly unlikely 1-2-3-4-5 highly likely

6. How often do you look forward to another day at Flash Media?
   Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP IN ORGANIZATIONS: PERCEIVED BEHAVIORAL ATTRIBUTES AND THEIR MEASURMENT (Conger & Kanungo, 1994)

Now please consider the CEO of Flash Media, how would you evaluate him on the following scale. This CEO..

Very Uncharacteristic	Uncharacteristic	Slightly Uncharacteristic	Slightly Characteristic	Characteristic	Very Characteristic
1	2	3	4	5	6

1. Is an exciting public speaker
2. Appears to be a skilful performer when presenting to a group
3. Is inspirational, able to motivate by articulating effectively the importance of what organizational members are doing
4. Has vision, often brings up ideas about possibilities for the future
5. Provides inspiring strategic and organizational goals

6. Consistently generates new ideas for the future of the organization

We would be grateful if you would complete a few final questions about this study.

What do you think this study was about?

Were you suspicious at any point that the study was looking at something other than what was stated?

- Not at all
- A little
- A lot

Was there anything about this study that you found difficult or confusing?

Please could you tell us a couple more information about you:

Female
Male
Other

Ethnicity:

- White
- Black or African American
- American indian or Alaska Native
- Asian
- Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- Other

Nationality:

Age:

Study Debriefing

Thank you for participating in this experiment. This study is part of an investigation into how mental imagery with a leader can increase organizational identification.
It was necessary to withhold this information from you prior to completing the experiment as advanced knowledge of the complete aims of the study could have impacted your performance on the task and questionnaire.
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Thank you again for your participation.

Experiment 2 Materials

Research: A study of mental imagery
Participant information and consent form

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To signify your voluntary participation please complete the consent form below.
Please select the boxes to confirm that you agree to each statement.

- ✓ I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for this study and have had the opportunity to ask any questions

- ✓ I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw from the study at any time without explanation

- ✓ I agree to take part in this study

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Now watch carefully this video of the CEO of Flash Media giving his annual debrief.

Attention manipulation affirmation:
Pay attention at the surroundings in the video too as you will be asked some questions about it later.

Manipulations of independent variable:
*** VIDEO *** randomly presented to participants
AUDIENCE VS NO AUDIENCE

Measures
ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION (Randsley de Moura et al. 2009):

Thinking about the video you have just seen please now try to imagine that you are one of the employees of Flash Media and indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

Strongly agree Somewhat agree Neither agree or disagree Somewhat disagree Strongly disagree
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- I feel strong ties with this Flash Media
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INCLUSION OF THE OTHER IN SELF (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000).
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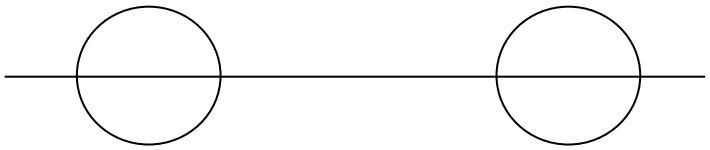

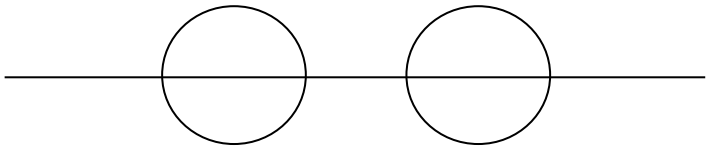

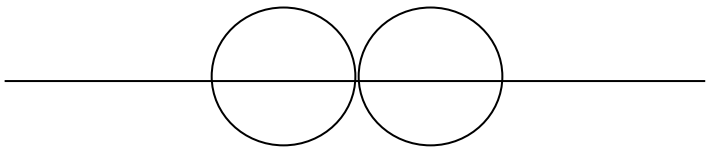

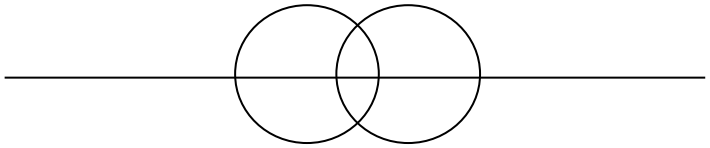

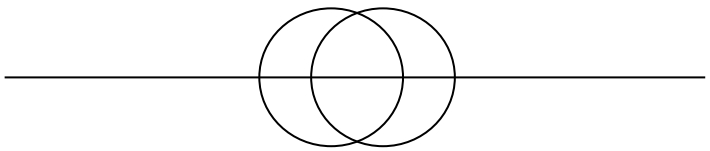

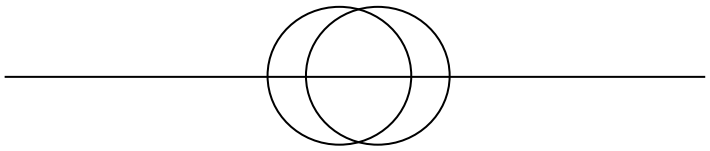

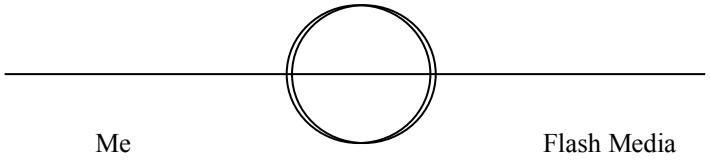

TURNOVER INTENTION SCALE (Roodt, 2004)

Imagine you`re an employee of Flash Media. Imagine that you have worked at Flash Media and that you have just watched the video of the CEO and now you are thinking of your position at Flash Media. Answer at the following questions:

7. How often have you considered leaving your job at Flash Media?
   Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

8. To what extent is your current job satisfying your personal needs at Flash Media?
   To no extent 1-2-3-4-5 to very large extent

9. How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at Flash Media to achieve your personal work-related goals?
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10. How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?
    Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

11. How likely are you to accept another job then Flash Media, at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?
    Higly unlikely 1-2-3-4-5 highly likely

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7. Is an exciting public speaker
8. Appears to be a skilful performer when presenting to a group
9. Is inspirational, able to motivate by articulating effectively the importance of what organizational members are doing
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12. Consistently generates new ideas for the future of the organization

We would be grateful if you would complete a few final questions about this study.

Attention manipulation check question:

How many people were in the video?

What do you think this study was about?

Were you suspicious at any point that the study was looking at something other than what was stated?

- Not at all
- A little
- A lot

Was there anything about this study that you found difficult or confusing?

Please could you tell us a couple more information about you:

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Thank you again for your participation.

Experiment 3 Materials

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Independent variable:

Condition 1: Now watch carefully this video of the CEO of Flash Media giving his annual debrief to some of the employees of Flash Media.

Condition 2: Now watch carefully this video of the CEO of Flash Media giving his annual debrief to some members of general public.

Attention manipulation affirmation:
Pay attention at the surroundings in the video too as you will be asked some questions about it later.

Video with audience.

Measures
ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION (Randsley de Moura et al. 2009):

Thinking about the video you have just seen please now try to imagine that you are one of the employees of Flash Media and indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

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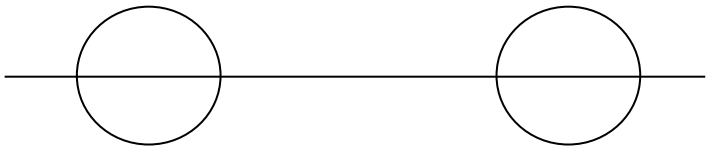

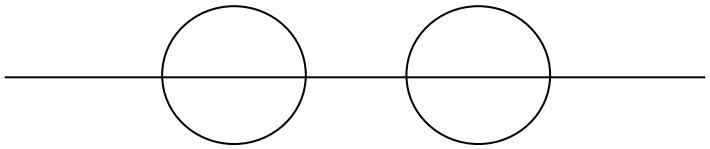

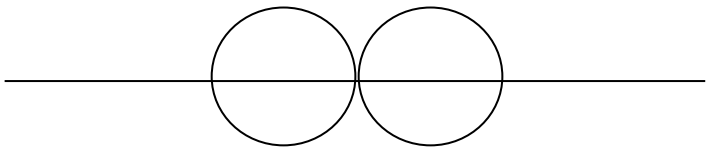

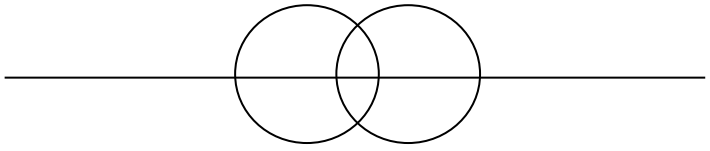

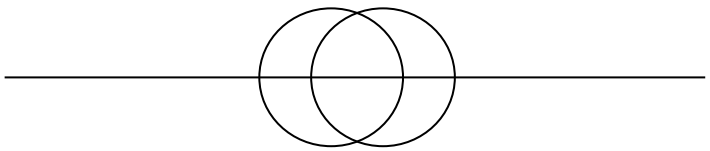

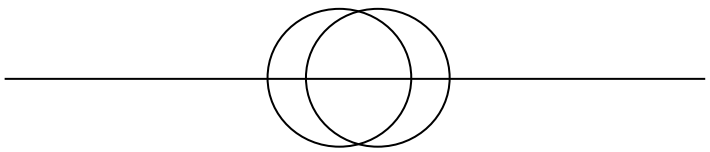

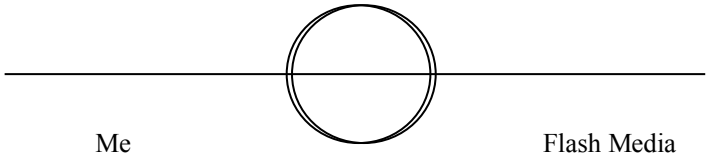

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How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at Flash Media to achieve your personal work-related goals?

Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?

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How likely are you to accept another job then Flash Media, at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?

Highly unlikely 1-2-3-4-5 highly likely

How often do you look forward to another day at Flash Media?

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CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP IN ORGANIZATIONS: PERCEIVED BEHAVIORAL ATTRIBUTES AND THEIR MEASURMENT (Conger & Kanungo, 1994)

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Attention manipulation check question:

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Was there anything about this study that you found difficult or confusing?

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Thank you again for your participation.

Experiment 4 Materials

Research: A study of mental imagery
Participant information and consent form

Please take a few minutes to read the following information on this research carefully before you agree to participate. If at any time you have a question regarding the study, please feel free to ask the researcher who will provide more information.

This study is being conducted by Kristina Habjan, a PhD student at Durham University. It aims to investigate the effects of mental imagery.
This study is composed of two parts. In the first one we ask you to watch carefully a video; and a second part where we ask you to complete a questionnaire regarding the video. The questionnaire should not take more than 10minutes to complete.

You are not obliged to participate in this research and are free to refuse to participate. You may also withdraw from the study at any point without giving any reason.
If you do agree to participate in the study, all responses and questionnaires will be treated confidentially. Your name and identifying information will be kept securely and separately from the rest of your questionnaire. Data will be stored for a maximum of five years after the study. Once the data is analysed, a report of the findings may be submitted for publication.

To signify your voluntary participation please complete the consent form below.
Please select the boxes to confirm that you agree to each statement.

- ✓ I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for this study and have had the opportunity to ask any questions

- ✓ I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw from the study at any time without explanation

- ✓ I agree to take part in this study

  If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of this study, please inform the Chair of the Psychology Research Ethics Committee (via the Psychology Departmental Office) in writing, providing a detailed account of your concern.

Please read the following extract closely:

We would like you to imagine that you work for a company named Flash Media. Flash media is a marketing agency. Their business involves creating, planning and producing advertising campaigns for client groups. The company has been established for over 50 years. They have multiple offices across the country and a large portfolio of work for a broad range of clients. They employ over 600 members of staff. On a day-to-day basis your job involves taking briefs from clients and liaising with designers and programmers to ensure that projects are delivered on time and to specification.

Independent variable:

Condition 1: Now watch carefully this video of the CEO of Flash Media giving his annual debrief to some of the employees of Flash Media.

Condition 2: Now watch carefully this video of the CEO of Flash Media giving his annual debrief to some members of general public.

Attention manipulation affirmation:
Pay attention at the surroundings in the video too as you will be asked some questions about it later.

Video with audience: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=a8VxQobnKxY&t=3s

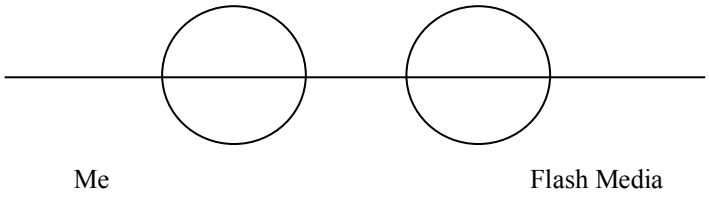
Measures
ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION (Randsley de Moura et al. 2009):

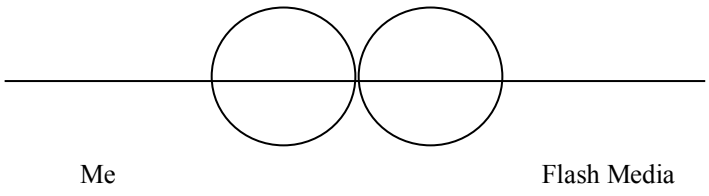
Thinking about the video you have just seen please now try to imagine that you are one of the employees of Flash Media and indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

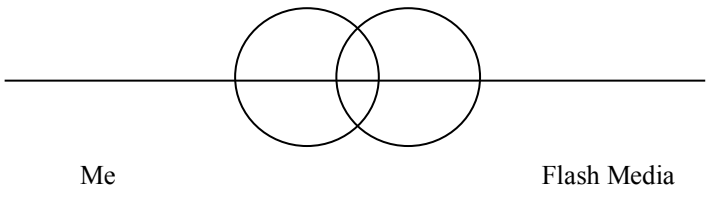
Strongly agree Somewhat agree Neither agree or disagree Somewhat disagree Strongly disagree
1 2 3 4 5

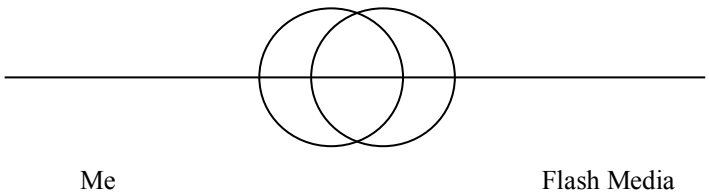
- I feel strong ties with this Flash Media
- Flash Media is important to me
- I feel proud to be a member of Flash Media
- I feel a strong sense of belonging to Flash Media
- Belonging to Flash Media is an important part of my self-image
- I often regret that I belong to Flash Media
- I`m glad to be a member of Flash Media

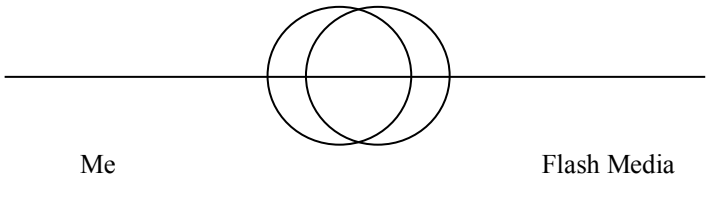
INCLUSION OF THE OTHER IN SELF (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000).
Insert in the box below which of the following figures best represent the relationship between you and Flash Media.

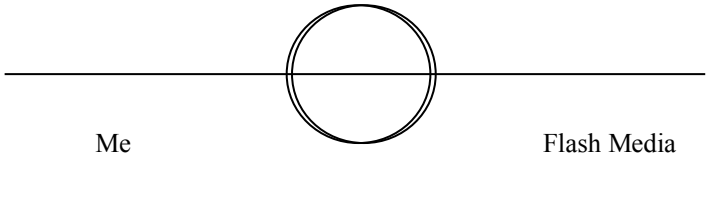












TURNOVER INTENTION SCALE (Roodt, 2004)

Imagine you`re an employee of Flash Media. Imagine that you have worked at Flash Media and that you have just watched the video of the CEO and now you are thinking of your position at Flash Media. Answer at the following questions:

How often have you considered leaving your job at Flash Media?

Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

To what extent is your current job satisfying your personal needs at Flash Media?

To no extent 1-2-3-4-5 to very large extent

How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at Flash Media to achieve your personal work-related goals?

Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?

Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

How likely are you to accept another job then Flash Media, at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?

Highly unlikely 1-2-3-4-5 highly likely

How often do you look forward to another day at Flash Media?

Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP IN ORGANIZATIONS: PERCEIVED BEHAVIORAL ATTRIBUTES AND THEIR MEASURMENT (Conger & Kanungo, 1994)

Now please consider the CEO of Flash Media, how would you evaluate him on the following scale. This CEO..

Very Uncharacteristic	Uncharacteristic	Slightly Uncharacteristic	Slightly Characteristic	Characteristic	Very Characteristic
1	2	3	4	5	6

- Is an exciting public speaker
- Appears to be a skilful performer when presenting to a group
- Is inspirational, able to motivate by articulating effectively the importance of what organizational members are doing
- Has vision, often brings up ideas about possibilities for the future
- Provides inspiring strategic and organizational goals
- Consistently generates new ideas for the future of the organization

We would be grateful if you would complete a few final questions about this study.

Attention manipulation check question:

How many people were in the video?

What do you think this study was about?

Were you suspicious at any point that the study was looking at something other than what was stated?

- Not at all
- A little
- A lot

Was there anything about this study that you found difficult or confusing?

Please could you tell us a couple more information about you:

Female
Male
Other

Ethnicity:

- White
- Black or African American
- American indian or Alaska Native
- Asian
- Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- Other

Nationality:

Age:

Study Debriefing

Thank you for participating in this experiment. This study is part of an investigation into how mental imagery with a leader can increase organizational identification.
It was necessary to withhold this information from you prior to completing the experiment as advanced knowledge of the complete aims of the study could have impacted your performance on the task and questionnaire.
In the experiment, we provided information across different conditions that presented two different experiences. We are interested in whether watching a video that either shows the leader with an audience or not can influence a sense of organizational identification with the company in question.

If you would like further information about the study or would like to know about what my findings are when all the data have been collected and analyzed, then please contact me on (kristina.habjan@durham.ac.uk). I cannot however provide you with your individual results.

Thank you again for your participation.

Appendix B

Experiment 5 Materials

Research: A study of mental simulation
Participant information and consent form

You are invited to take part in a study that I am conducting as part of a research project at Durham University. This study has received ethical approval from the department of Psychology, Ethics Committee of Durham University.
Before you decide whether to agree to take part it is important for you to understand the purpose of the research and what is involved as a participant. Please read the following information carefully. Please get in contact if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information.
This study is being conducted by Kristina Habjan, a PhD student at Durham University. It aims to investigate the effects of mental simulation on people in an organizational context.

This study is composed of two parts. In the first one we ask you to read carefully an e-mail; and a second part where we ask you to complete a questionnaire. The e-mail is from a CEO of a Company who will be delivering an annual debrief. Reading the e-mail won't take you more than 5 minutes.
The questionnaire to follow should not take more than 10 minutes to complete and it will involve some questions about the e-mail, the CEO and, some generic information about you for only purpose of statistics.

You are not obliged to participate in this research and are free to refuse to participate. You may also withdraw from the study at any point without giving any reason.
If you do agree to participate in the study, all responses and questionnaires will be treated confidentially. Your name and identifying information will be kept securely and separately from the rest of your questionnaire. Data will be stored for a maximum of five years after the study. Once the data is analyzed, a report of the findings may be submitted for publication.

To signify your voluntary participation please complete the consent form below.
Please select the boxes to confirm that you agree to each statement.

- ✓ I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for this study and have had the opportunity to ask any questions

- ✓ I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw from the study at any time without explanation

- ✓ I agree to take part in this study

  If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of this study, please inform the Chair of the Psychology Research Ethics Committee (via the Psychology Departmental Office) in writing, providing a detailed account of your concern.

Please read the following extract closely:

We would like you to imagine that you work for a company named Flash Media. Flash Media is a marketing agency. Their business involves creating, planning and producing advertising campaigns for client groups. The company has been established for over 50 years. They have multiple offices across the country and a large portfolio of work for a broad range of clients. They employ over 600 members of staff. On a day-to-day basis your job involves taking briefs from clients and liaising with designers and programmers to ensure that projects are delivered on time and to specification.

Imagine that the CEO of Flash Media has sent you the following e-mail, please read it carefully.

Independent variable:
Condition 1: individualistic e-mail

TO: All_Employees_FlashMedia

SUBJECT: BUILDING ON THE STRENGTHS

Dear All,

2017 was a great year. The company accomplished all of its goals and objectives. 2018 is going to be another hugely successful year.

The achievements of the company are due to passion and the drive to make things better. I know my incredible team will work tirelessly to make the most of the organization.

My strategy for this year is to embed in the organization capacities, capabilities and competencies that will enable the organization to respond to whatever it may confront in an uncertain world.

I will work hard in order to make the most of this organization.

The network is the future of my business. I want to revolutionize the way people see and act in the world through the use of the products.

I believe in the possibility of creating new things because there is talent, skills and commitment, that kind of commitment that will ensure the organization prosper in this competitive arena.

I love FlashMedia. I love FlashMedia customers. I will again work hard to make 2018 a stellar year for the company.

Best wishes,

Bruce.

Bruce Henrikson
C.E.O. Flash Media
bruce.henrikson@flashmedia.com

Flash Media

Condition 2: collectivistic e-mail

TO: All_Employees_FlashMedia

SUBJECT: BUILDING ON THE STRENGTHS

Dear All,

2017 was a great year. The company accomplished all of its goals and objectives. 2018 is going to be another hugely successful year.

The achievements of the company are due to passion and the drive to make things better. We know our incredible team will work tirelessly to make the most of the organization.

Our strategy for this year is to embed in the organization capacities, capabilities and competencies that will enable the organization to respond to whatever it may confront in an uncertain world.

We will work hard in order to make the most of this organization.

The network is the future of our business. We want to revolutionize the way people see and act in the world through the use of the products.

We believe in the possibility of creating new things because there is talent, skills and commitment, that kind of commitment that will ensure the organization prosper in this competitive arena.

We love FlashMedia. We love FlashMedia customers. We will again work hard to make 2018 a stellar year for the company.

Best wishes,

Bruce.

Bruce Henrikson
C.E.O. Flash Media
bruce.henrikson@flashmedia.com

Flash Media

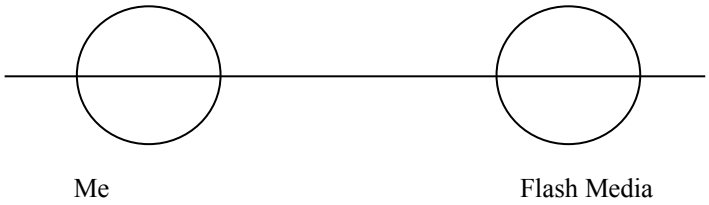
Measures
ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION (Randsley de Moura et al. 2009):

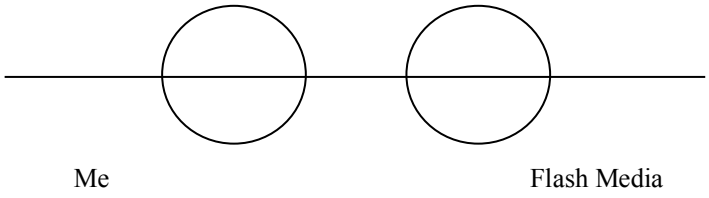
Thinking about the video you have just seen please now try to imagine that you are one of the employees of Flash Media and indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

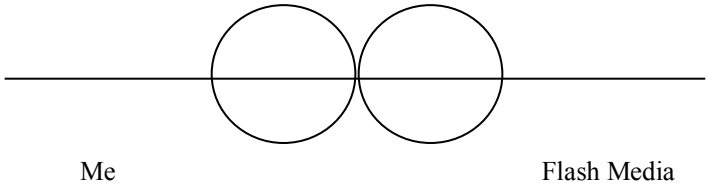
Strongly agree Somewhat agree Neither agree or disagree Somewhat disagree Strongly disagree
1 2 3 4 5

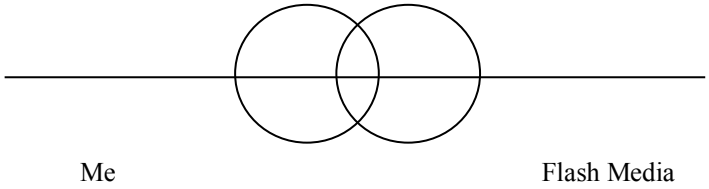
- I feel strong ties with this Flash Media
- Flash Media is important to me
- I feel proud to be a member of Flash Media
- I feel a strong sense of belonging to Flash Media
- Belonging to Flash Media is an important part of my self-image
- I often regret that I belong to Flash Media
- I`m glad to be a member of Flash Media

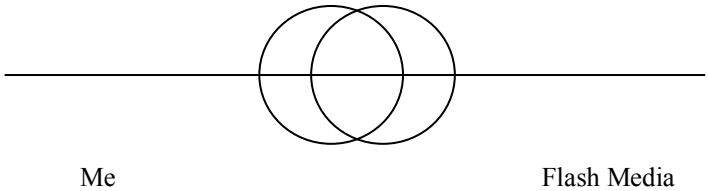
INCLUSION OF THE OTHER IN SELF (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000).
Insert in the box below which of the following figures best represent the relationship between you and Flash Media.

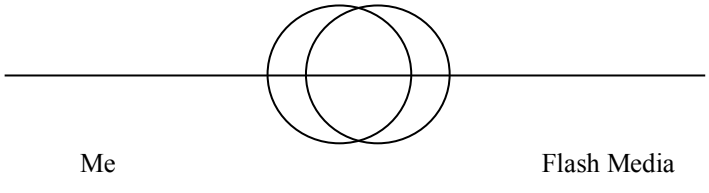


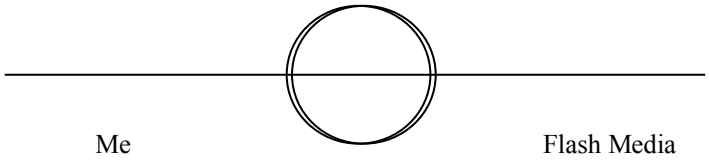




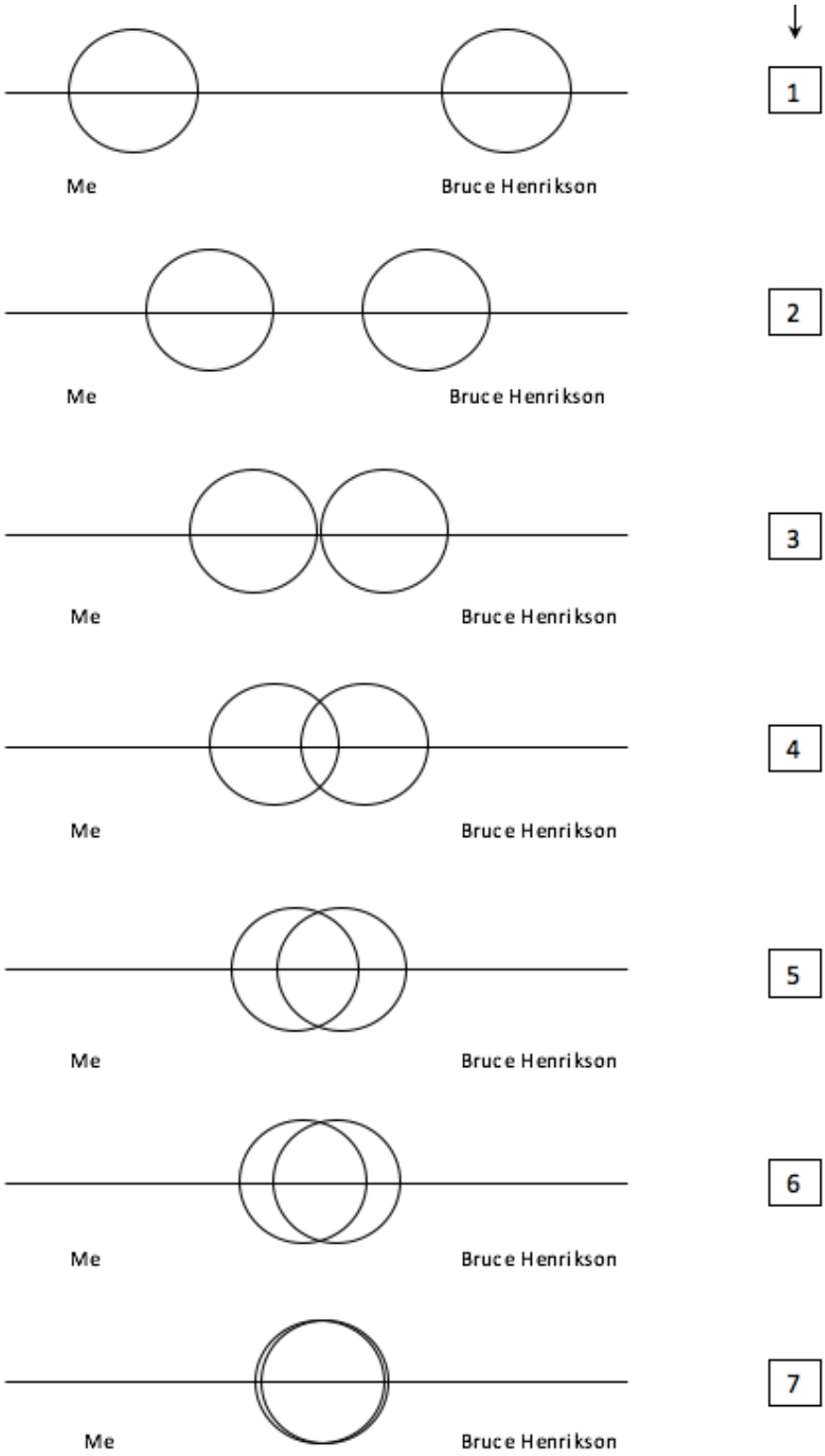






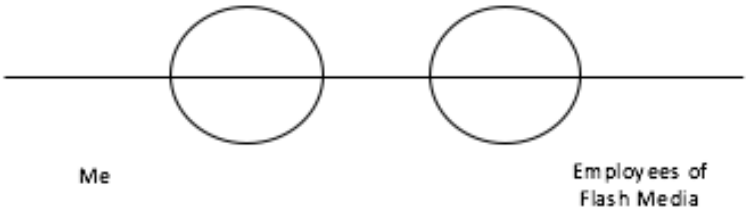


Insert in the box at the bottom which of the following figures best represent the rela -tion between you and Bruce Henrikson.

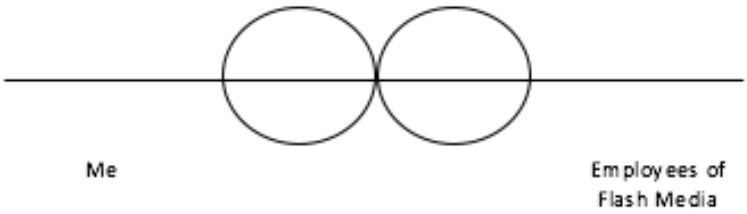


Insert in the box at the bottom which of the following figures best represent the relation between you and other employees of Flash Media.

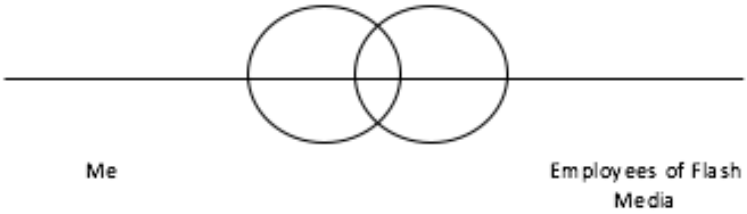
1



2



3



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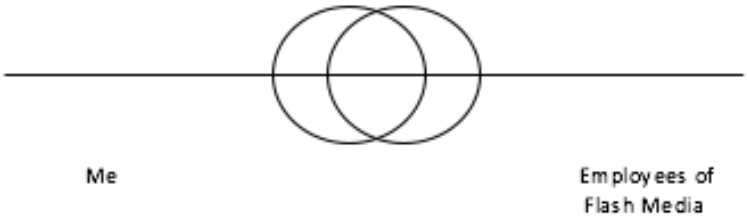

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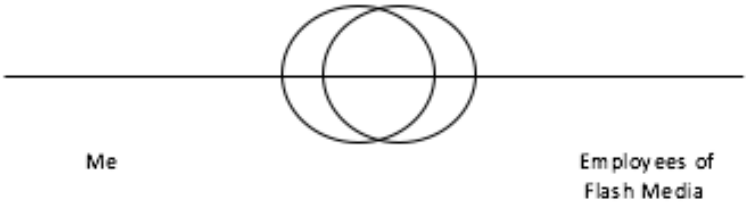

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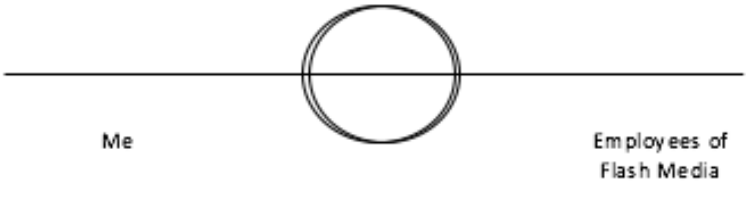
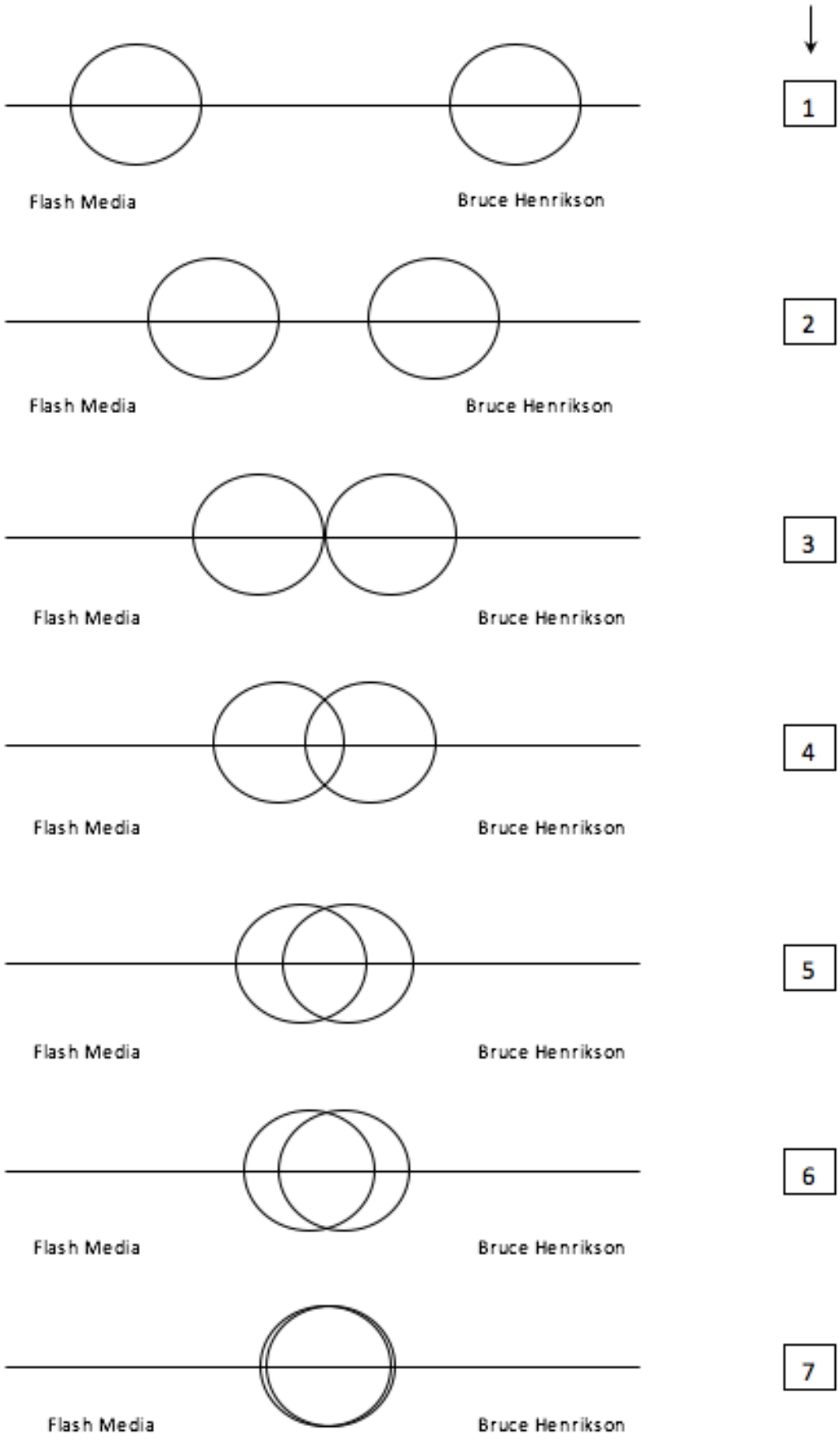


7

Insert in the box at the bottom, which of the following figures best represent the relation between Flash Media and Bruce Henrikson.



TURNOVER INTENTION SCALE (Roodt, 2004)

Imagine you`re an employee of Flash Media. Imagine that you have worked at Flash Media and that you have just watched the video of the CEO and now you are thinking of your position at Flash Media. Answer at the following questions:

How often have you considered leaving your job at Flash Media?

Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

To what extent is your current job satisfying your personal needs at Flash Media?

To no extent 1-2-3-4-5 to very large extent

How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at Flash Media to achieve your personal work-related goals?

Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?

Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

How likely are you to accept another job then Flash Media, at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?

Highly unlikely 1-2-3-4-5 highly likely

How often do you look forward to another day at Flash Media?

Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP IN ORGANIZATIONS: PERCEIVED BEHAVIORAL ATTRIBUTES AND THEIR MEASURMENT (Conger & Kanungo, 1994)

Now please consider the CEO of Flash Media, how would you evaluate him on the following scale. This CEO..

Very Uncharacteristic	Uncharacteristic	Slightly Uncharacteristic	Slightly Characteristic	Characteristic	Very Characteristic
1	2	3	4	5	6

- Is an exciting public speaker
- Appears to be a skilful performer when presenting to a group
- Is inspirational, able to motivate by articulating effectively the importance of what organizational members are doing
- Has vision, often brings up ideas about possibilities for the future
- Provides inspiring strategic and organizational goals
- Consistently generates new ideas for the future of the organization

We would be grateful if you would complete a few final questions about this study.

What do you think this study was about?

Were you suspicious at any point that the study was looking at something other than what was stated?

- Not at all
- A little
- A lot

Was there anything about this study that you found difficult or confusing?

Please could you tell us a couple more information about you:

Female
Male
Other
Ethnicity:

- White
- Black or African American
- American indian or Alaska Native
- Asian

- Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- Other

Nationality:

Age:

Study Debriefing

Thank you for participating in this experiment. This study is part of an investigation into how mental imagery with a leader can increase organizational identification.
It was necessary to withhold this information from you prior to completing the experiment as advanced knowledge of the complete aims of the study could have impacted your performance on the task and questionnaire.

In the experiment, we provided information across different conditions that presented two different experiences. We are interested in whether reading an e-mail from the leader with individualistic or collectivistic rhetoric can influence a sense of organizational identification with the company in question.

Please contact Kristina Habjan, (kristina.habjan@durham.ac.uk) if you have any further questions about this study or would like to receive information about the results when analysis is completed.

If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of this study please contact the Chair of Ethics Committee of the Department of Psychology: Dr Nadja Reissland (n.n.reissland@durham.ac.uk).

Thank you again for your participation

Experiment 6 Materials

Research: A study of mental simulation
Participant information and consent form

You are invited to take part in a study that I am conducting as part of a research project at Durham University. This study has received ethical approval from the department of Psychology, Ethics Committee of Durham University.
Before you decide whether to agree to take part it is important for you to understand the purpose of the research and what is involved as a participant. Please read the following information carefully. Please get in contact if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information.
This study is being conducted by Kristina Habjan, a PhD student at Durham University. It aims to investigate the effects of mental simulation on people in an organizational context.

This study is composed of two parts. In the first one we ask you to read carefully an e-mail; and a second part where we ask you to complete a questionnaire. The e-mail is from a CEO of a Company who will be delivering an annual debrief. Reading the e-mail won't take you more than 5 minutes.
The questionnaire to follow should not take more than 10 minutes to complete and it will involve some questions about the e-mail, the CEO and, some generic information about you for only purpose of statistics.

You are not obliged to participate in this research and are free to refuse to participate. You may also withdraw from the study at any point without giving any reason.
If you do agree to participate in the study, all responses and questionnaires will be treated confidentially. Your name and identifying information will be kept securely and separately from the rest of your questionnaire. Data will be stored for a maximum of five years after the study. Once the data is analyzed, a report of the findings may be submitted for publication.

To signify your voluntary participation please complete the consent form below.
Please select the boxes to confirm that you agree to each statement.

- ✓ I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for this study and have had the opportunity to ask any questions

- ✓ I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw from the study at any time without explanation

- ✓ I agree to take part in this study

  If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of this study, please inform the Chair of the Psychology Research Ethics Committee (via the Psychology Departmental Office) in writing, providing a detailed account of your concern.

Moderator: Personal Need for Structure Scale
Neuberg and Newsom (1993)

12 items. 6-point scale 1= strongly disagree, 2= moderately disagree, 3= slightly disagree, 4= slightly agree, 5= moderately agree, 6= strongly agree.

1. It upsets me to go into a situation without knowing what I can expect from it.
2. I'm not bothered by things that interrupt my daily routine.
3. I enjoy having a clear and structured mode of life.
4. I like to have a place for everything and everything in its place.
5. I enjoy being spontaneous.
6. I find that a well-ordered life with regular hours makes my life tedious.
7. I don't like situations that are uncertain.
8. I hate to change my plans at the last minute.
9. I hate to be with people who are unpredictable.
10. I find that a consistent routine enables me to enjoy life more.
11. I enjoy the exhilaration of being in unpredictable situations.
12. I become uncomfortable when the rules in a situation are not clear.

Please read the following extract closely:

We would like you to imagine that you work for a company named Flash Media. Flash Media is a marketing agency. Their business involves creating, planning and producing advertising campaigns for client groups. The company has been established for over 50 years. They have multiple offices across the country and a large portfolio of work for a broad range of clients. They employ over 600 members of staff. On a day-to-day basis your job involves taking briefs from clients and liaising with designers and programmers to ensure that projects are delivered on time and to specification.

Imagine that the CEO of Flash Media has sent you the following e-mail, please read it carefully.

Independent variable:

Condition 1: individualistic e-mail

TO: All_Employees_FlashMedia

SUBJECT: BUILDING ON THE STRENGTHS

Dear All,

2017 was a great year. The company accomplished all of its goals and objectives. 2018 is going to be another hugely successful year.

The achievements of the company are due to passion and the drive to make things better. I know my incredible team will work tirelessly to make the most of the organization.

My strategy for this year is to embed in the organization capacities, capabilities and competencies that will enable the organization to respond to whatever it may confront in an uncertain world.

I will work hard in order to make the most of this organization.

The network is the future of my business. I want to revolutionize the way people see and act in the world through the use of the products.

I believe in the possibility of creating new things because there is talent, skills and commitment, that kind of commitment that will ensure the organization prosper in this competitive arena.

I love FlashMedia. I love FlashMedia customers. I will again work hard to make 2018 a stellar year for the company.

Best wishes,

Bruce.

Bruce Henrikson
C.E.O. Flash Media
bruce.henrikson@flashmedia.com

Flash Media

Condition 2: collectivistic e-mail

TO: All_Employees_FlashMedia

SUBJECT: BUILDING ON THE STRENGTHS

Dear All,

2017 was a great year. The company accomplished all of its goals and objectives. 2018 is going to be another hugely successful year.

The achievements of the company are due to passion and the drive to make things better. We know our incredible team will work tirelessly to make the most of the organization.

Our strategy for this year is to embed in the organization capacities, capabilities and competencies that will enable the organization to respond to whatever it may confront in an uncertain world.

We will work hard in order to make the most of this organization.

The network is the future of our business. We want to revolutionize the way people see and act in the world through the use of the products.

We believe in the possibility of creating new things because there is talent, skills and commitment, that kind of commitment that will ensure the organization prosper in this competitive arena.

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Bruce Henrikson
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Measures

ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION (Randsley de Moura et al. 2009):

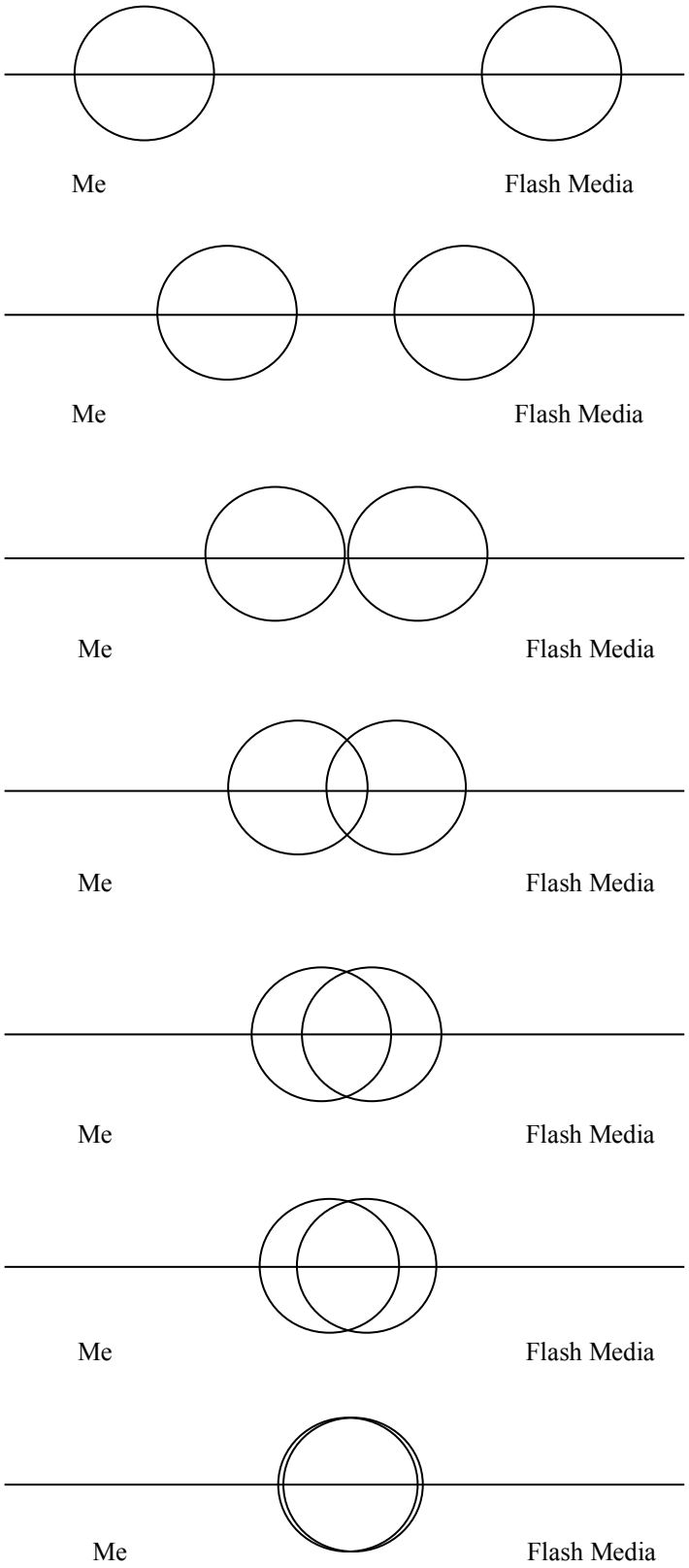
Thinking about the video you have just seen please now try to imagine that you are one of the employees of Flash Media and indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

Strongly agree Somewhat agree Neither agree or disagree Somewhat disagree Strongly disagree

1 2 3 4 5

- I feel strong ties with this Flash Media
- Flash Media is important to me
- I feel proud to be a member of Flash Media
- I feel a strong sense of belonging to Flash Media
- Belonging to Flash Media is an important part of my self-image
- I often regret that I belong to Flash Media
- I`m glad to be a member of Flash Media

INCLUSION OF THE OTHER IN SELF (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000).
Insert in the box below which of the following figures best represent the relationship between you and Flash Media.



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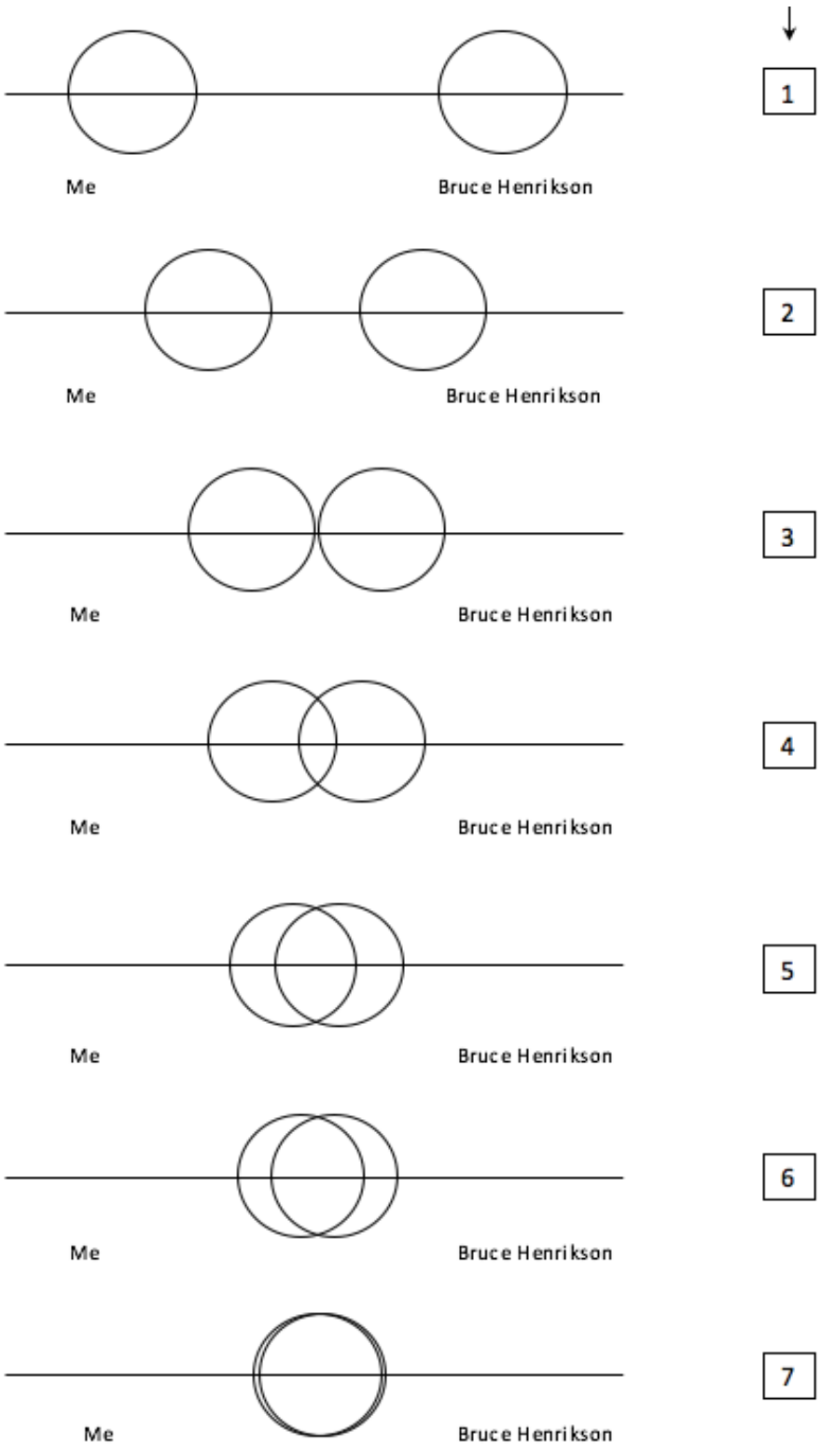

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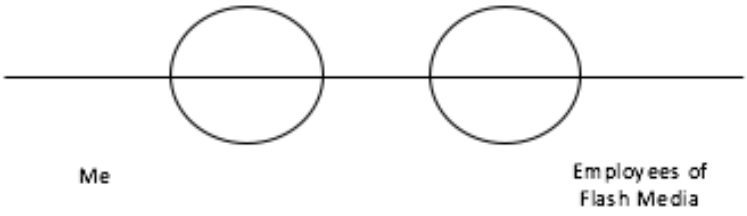

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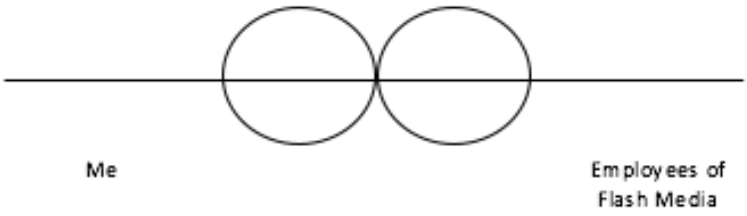
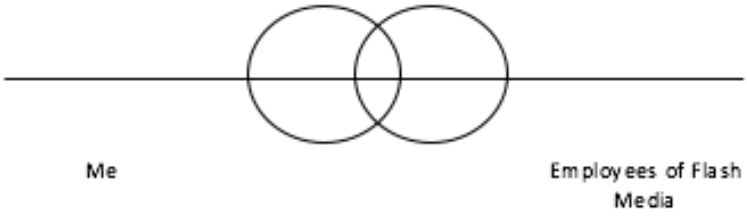


3



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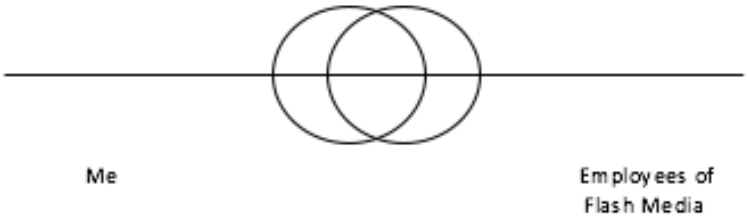

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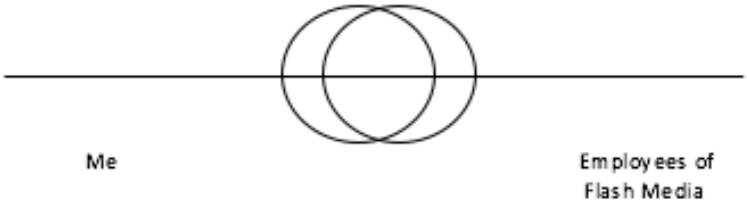

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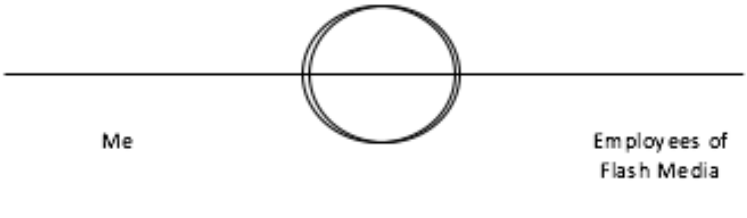

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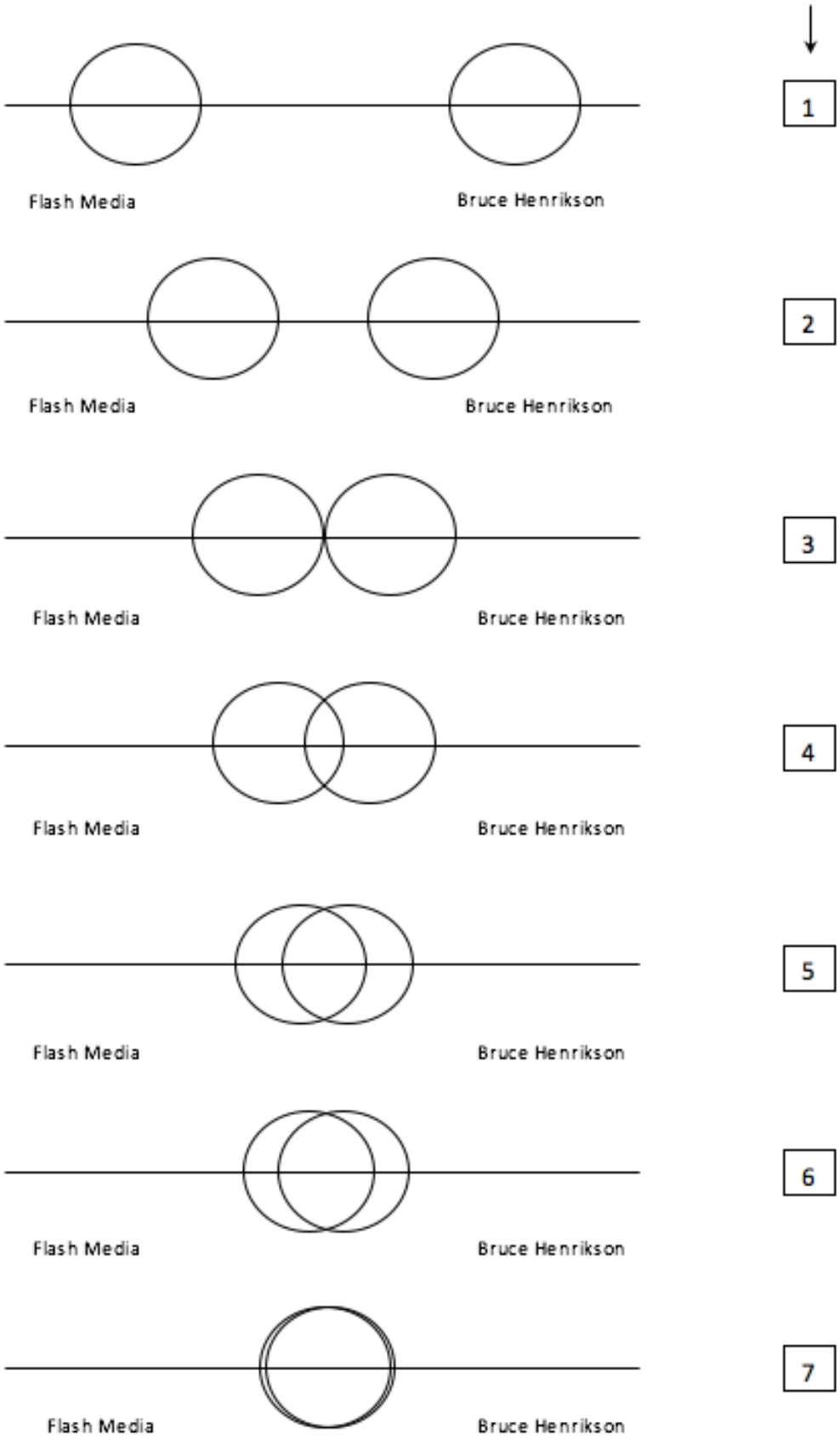

TURNOVER INTENTION SCALE (Roodt, 2004)

Imagine you`re an employee of Flash Media. Imagine that you have worked at Flash Media and that you have just watched the video of the CEO and now you are thinking of your position at Flash Media. Answer at the following questions:

How often have you considered leaving your job at Flash Media?

Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

To what extent is your current job satisfying your personal needs at Flash Media?

To no extent 1-2-3-4-5 to very large extent

How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at Flash Media to achieve your personal work-related goals?

Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?

Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

How likely are you to accept another job then Flash Media, at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?

Highly unlikely 1-2-3-4-5 highly likely

How often do you look forward to another day at Flash Media?

Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP IN ORGANIZATIONS: PERCEIVED BEHAVIORAL ATTRIBUTES AND THEIR MEASURMENT (Conger & Kanungo, 1994)

Now please consider the CEO of Flash Media, how would you evaluate him on the following scale. This CEO..

Very Uncharacteristic	Uncharacteristic	Slightly Uncharacteristic	Slightly Characteristic	Characteristic	Very Characteristic
1	2	3	4	5	6

- Is an exciting public speaker
- Appears to be a skilful performer when presenting to a group
- Is inspirational, able to motivate by articulating effectively the importance of what organizational members are doing
- Has vision, often brings up ideas about possibilities for the future
- Provides inspiring strategic and organizational goals
- Consistently generates new ideas for the future of the organization

We would be grateful if you would complete a few final questions about this study.

What do you think this study was about?

Were you suspicious at any point that the study was looking at something other than what was stated?

- Not at all
- A little
- A lot

Was there anything about this study that you found difficult or confusing?

Please could you tell us a couple more information about you:

Female
Male
Other
Ethnicity:

- White
- Black or African American
- American indian or Alaska Native
- Asian

- Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- Other

Nationality:

Age:

Study Debriefing

Thank you for participating in this experiment. This study is part of an investigation into how mental imagery with a leader can increase organizational identification.
It was necessary to withhold this information from you prior to completing the experiment as advanced knowledge of the complete aims of the study could have impacted your performance on the task and questionnaire.

In the experiment, we provided information across different conditions that presented two different experiences. We are interested in whether reading an e-mail from the leader with individualistic or collectivistic rhetoric can influence a sense of organizational identification with the company in question.

Please contact Kristina Habjan, (kristina.habjan@durham.ac.uk) if you have any further questions about this study or would like to receive information about the results when analysis is completed.

If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of this study please contact the Chair of Ethics Committee of the Department of Psychology: Dr Nadja Reissland (n.n.reissland@durham.ac.uk).

Thank you again for your participation

Experiment 7 Materials

Research: A study of mental simulation
Participant information and consent form

You are invited to take part in a study that I am conducting as part of a research project at Durham University. This study has received ethical approval from the department of Psychology, Ethics Committee of Durham University.
Before you decide whether to agree to take part it is important for you to understand the purpose of the research and what is involved as a participant. Please read the following information carefully. Please get in contact if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information.
This study is being conducted by Kristina Habjan, a PhD student at Durham University. It aims to investigate the effects of mental simulation on people in an organizational context.

This study is composed of two parts. In the first one we ask you to read carefully an e-mail; and a second part where we ask you to complete a questionnaire. The e-mail is from a CEO of a Company who will be delivering an annual debrief. Reading the e-mail won't take you more than 5 minutes.
The questionnaire to follow should not take more than 10 minutes to complete and it will involve some questions about the e-mail, the CEO and, some generic information about you for only purpose of statistics.

You are not obliged to participate in this research and are free to refuse to participate. You may also withdraw from the study at any point without giving any reason.
If you do agree to participate in the study, all responses and questionnaires will be treated confidentially. Your name and identifying information will be kept securely and separately from the rest of your questionnaire. Data will be stored for a maximum of five years after the study. Once the data is analyzed, a report of the findings may be submitted for publication.

To signify your voluntary participation please complete the consent form below.
Please select the boxes to confirm that you agree to each statement.

- ✓ I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for this study and have had the opportunity to ask any questions

- ✓ I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw from the study at any time without explanation

- ✓ I agree to take part in this study

  If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of this study, please inform the Chair of the Psychology Research Ethics Committee (via the Psychology Departmental Office) in writing, providing a detailed account of your concern.

Moderator: Horizontal/Vertical Collectivism/Individualism scale: Sivadas, 2008 – original 32-item scale by Singelis et al., 1995.
Reduced 14-item scale
Agree-disagree Likert Scale.

1. My happiness depends very much on the happiness of those around me HC
2. I would do what would please my family, even if I detested that activity VC
3. I usually sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of my group VC
4. I enjoy working in situations involving competition with others VI
5. The well-being of my co-workers is important to me HC
6. I enjoy being unique and different from others in many ways HI
7. Children should feel honored if their parents receive a distinguished award VC
8. I often "do my own thing" HI
9. Competition is the law of nature VI
10. If a co-worker gets a prize, I would feel proud HC
11. I am a unique individual HI
12. I would sacrifice an activity that I enjoy very much If my family did not approve of it VC
13. Without competition it is not possible to have a good society VI
14. I feel good when I cooperate with others HC

Please read the following extract closely:

We would like you to imagine that you work for a company named Flash Media. Flash Media is a marketing agency. Their business involves creating, planning and producing advertising campaigns for client groups. The company has been established for over 50 years. They have multiple offices across the country and a large portfolio of work for a broad range of clients. They employ over 600 members of staff. On a day-to-day basis your job involves taking briefs from clients and liaising with designers and programmers to ensure that projects are delivered on time and to specification.

Imagine that the CEO of Flash Media has sent you the following e-mail, please read it carefully.

Independent variable:

Condition 1: individualistic e-mail

TO: All_Employees_FlashMedia

SUBJECT: BUILDING ON THE STRENGTHS

Dear All,

2017 was a great year. The company accomplished all of its goals and objectives. 2018 is going to be another hugely successful year.

The achievements of the company are due to passion and the drive to make things better. I know my incredible team will work tirelessly to make the most of the organization.

My strategy for this year is to embed in the organization capacities, capabilities and competencies that will enable the organization to respond to whatever it may confront in an uncertain world.

I will work hard in order to make the most of this organization.

The network is the future of my business. I want to revolutionize the way people see and act in the world through the use of the products.

I believe in the possibility of creating new things because there is talent, skills and commitment, that kind of commitment that will ensure the organization prosper in this competitive arena.

I love FlashMedia. I love FlashMedia customers. I will again work hard to make 2018 a stellar year for the company.

Best wishes,

Bruce.

Bruce Henrikson
C.E.O. Flash Media
bruce.henrikson@flashmedia.com

Flash Media

Condition 2: collectivistic e-mail

TO: All_Employees_FlashMedia

SUBJECT: BUILDING ON THE STRENGTHS

Dear All,

2017 was a great year. The company accomplished all of its goals and objectives. 2018 is going to be another hugely successful year.

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We love FlashMedia. We love FlashMedia customers. We will again work hard to make 2018 a stellar year for the company.

Best wishes,

Bruce.

Bruce Henrikson
C.E.O. Flash Media
bruce.henrikson@flashmedia.com

Measures

Authentic leadership questionnaire - ALQ (Avolio et al., 2007)

Based on the e-mail you have just read, try to imagine that you are one of the employees of Flash Media and answer the following questions on how your CEO might be like:

0 not at all 1 once in a while 2 sometimes 3 fairly often 4 frequently, if not always

1. Says exactly what he means
2. Admits mistakes when they are made
3. Encourages everyone to speak their mind
4. Tells you the hard truth
5. Displays emotions exactly in line with feelings
6. Demonstrates beliefs that are consistent with actions
7. Makes decisions that are based on his core values
8. Asks you to take positions that support your core values
9. Makes difficult decisions based on high standards of ethical conduct
10. Solicits views that challenge his deeply held positions
11. Analyzes relevant data before coming to a decision
12. Listens carefully to different points of view before coming to conclusions
13. Seeks feedback to improve interactions with others
14. Accurately describes how other view his capabilities
15. Knows when is time to reevaluate his position on important issues
16. Shows he understands how specific actions impact others

ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION (Randsley de Moura et al. 2009):

Thinking about the video you have just seen please now try to imagine that you are one of the employees of Flash Media and indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

Strongly agree Somewhat agree Neither agree or disagree Somewhat disagree Strongly disagree

1 2 3 4 5

- I feel strong ties with this Flash Media
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- I often regret that I belong to Flash Media
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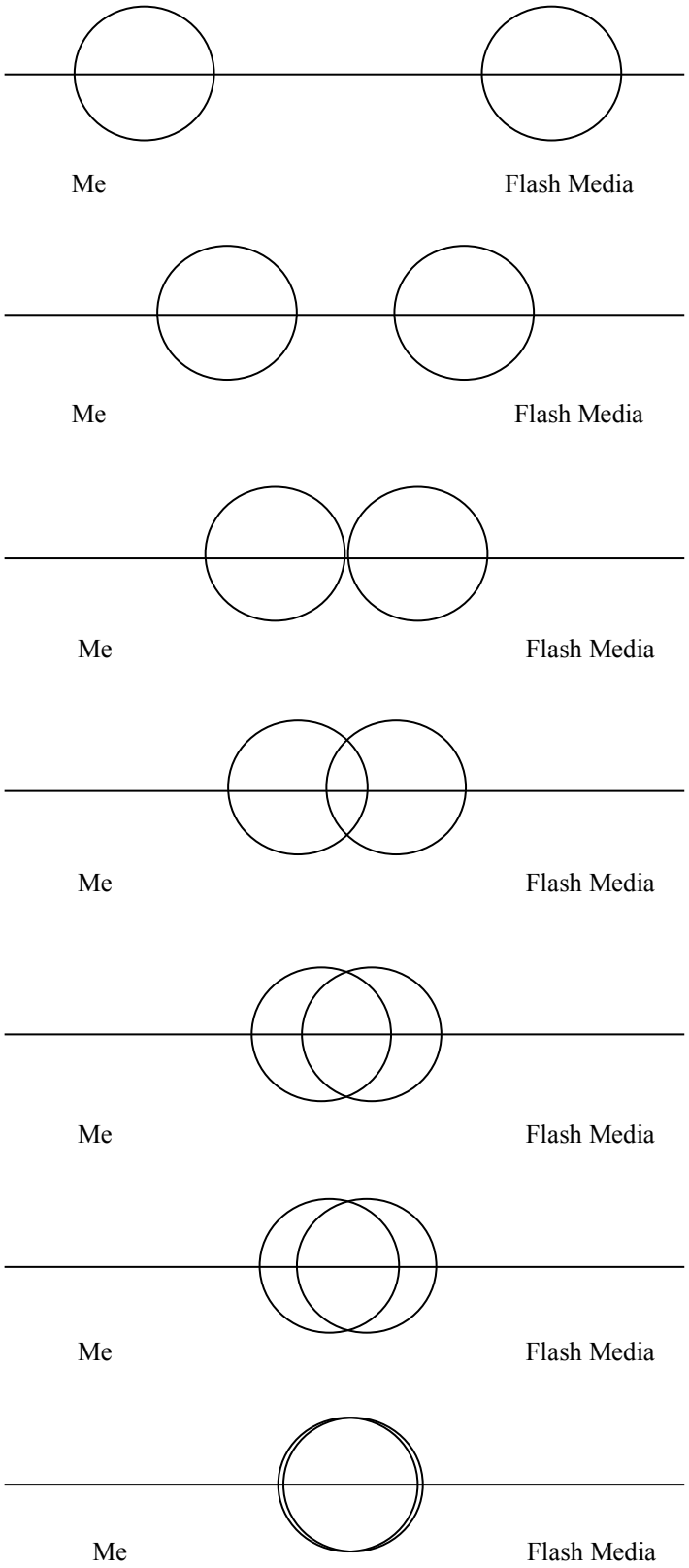
INCLUSION OF THE OTHER IN SELF (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000).
Insert in the box below which of the following figures best represent the relationship between you and Flash Media.



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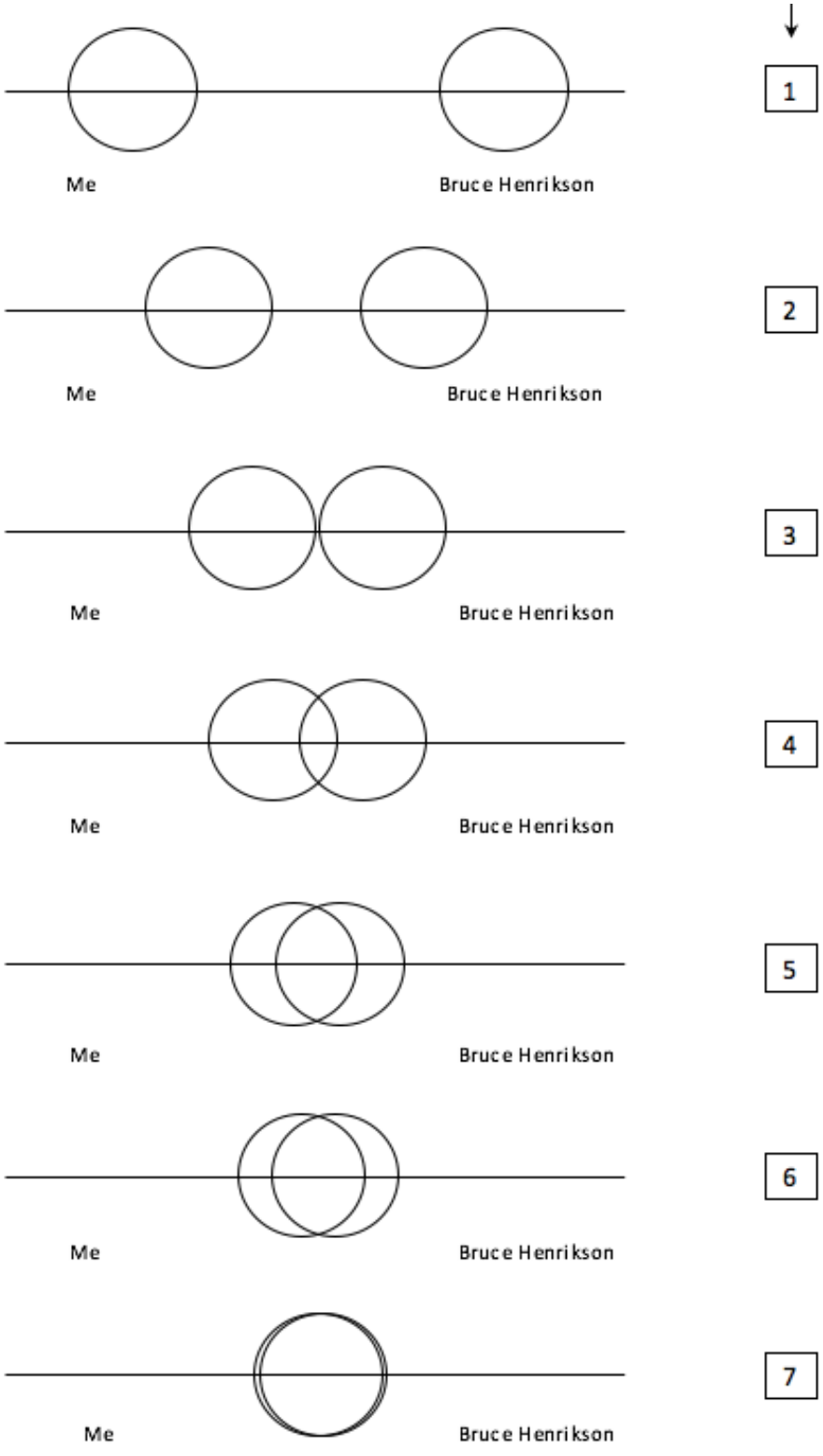

Insert in the box at the bottom which of the following figures best represent the relation between you and other employees of Flash Media.

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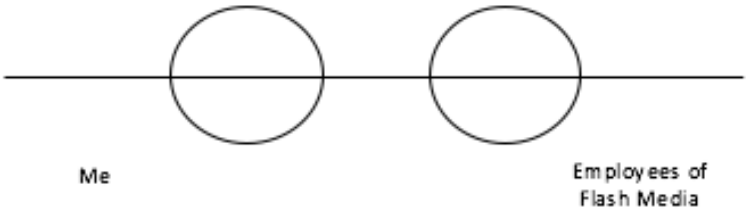
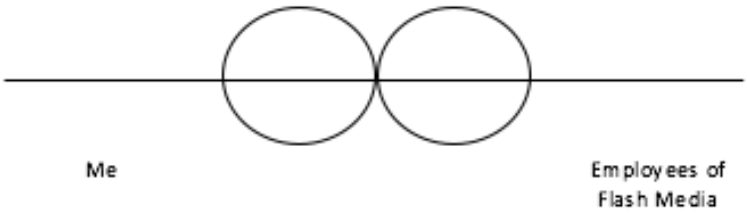


2



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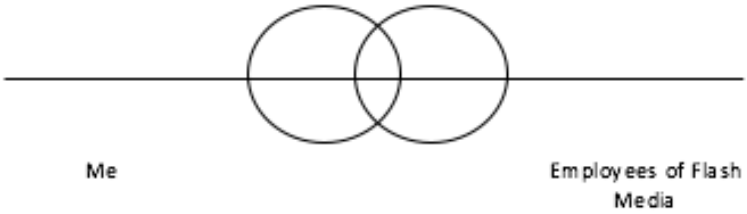

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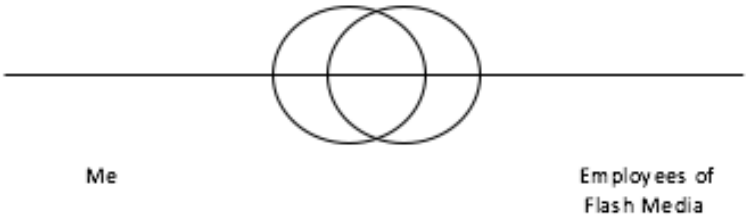

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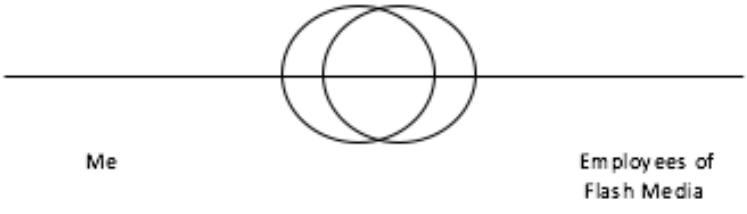

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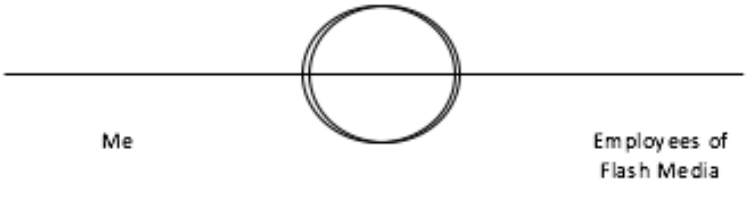

7

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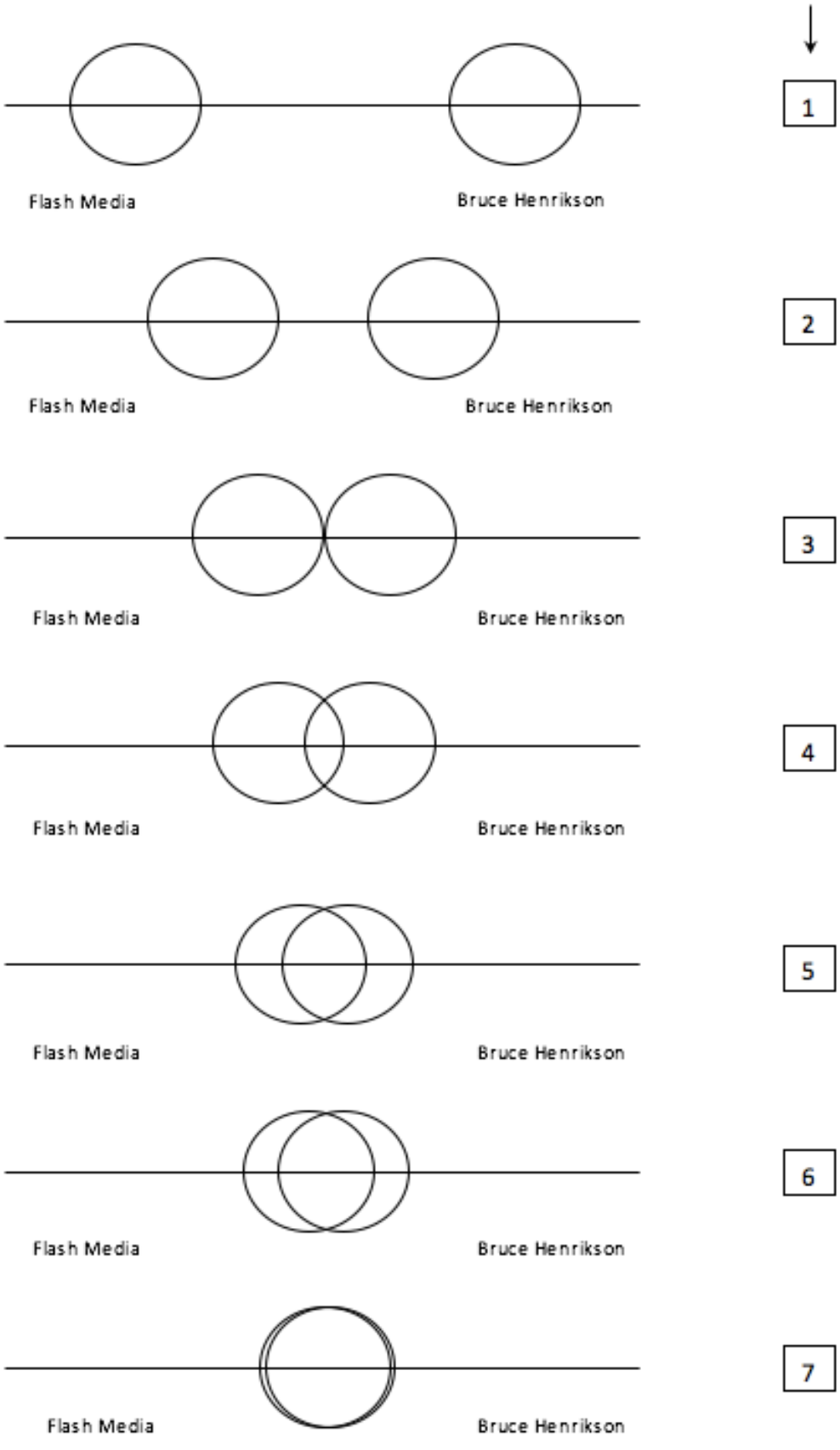

TURNOVER INTENTION SCALE (Roodt, 2004)

Imagine you`re an employee of Flash Media. Imagine that you have worked at Flash Media and that you have just watched the video of the CEO and now you are thinking of your position at Flash Media. Answer at the following questions:

How often have you considered leaving your job at Flash Media?

Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

To what extent is your current job satisfying your personal needs at Flash Media?

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How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at Flash Media to achieve your personal work-related goals?

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How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?

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How likely are you to accept another job then Flash Media, at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?

Highly unlikely 1-2-3-4-5 highly likely

How often do you look forward to another day at Flash Media?

Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP IN ORGANIZATIONS: PERCEIVED BEHAVIORAL ATTRIBUTES AND THEIR MEASURMENT (Conger & Kanungo, 1994)

Now please consider the CEO of Flash Media, how would you evaluate him on the following scale. This CEO..

Very Uncharacteristic	Uncharacteristic	Slightly Uncharacteristic	Slightly Characteristic	Characteristic	Very Characteristic
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- Is an exciting public speaker
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- Has vision, often brings up ideas about possibilities for the future
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- Consistently generates new ideas for the future of the organization

We would be grateful if you would complete a few final questions about this study.

What do you think this study was about?

Were you suspicious at any point that the study was looking at something other than what was stated?

- Not at all
- A little
- A lot

Was there anything about this study that you found difficult or confusing?

Please could you tell us a couple more information about you:

Female
Male
Other
Ethnicity:

- White
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Study Debriefing

Thank you for participating in this experiment. This study is part of an investigation into how mental imagery with a leader can increase organizational identification.
It was necessary to withhold this information from you prior to completing the experiment as advanced knowledge of the complete aims of the study could have impacted your performance on the task and questionnaire.

In the experiment, we provided information across different conditions that presented two different experiences. We are interested in whether reading an e-mail from the leader with individualistic or collectivistic rhetoric can influence a sense of organizational identification with the company in question.

Please contact Kristina Habjan, (kristina.habjan@durham.ac.uk) if you have any further questions about this study or would like to receive information about the results when analysis is completed.

If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of this study please contact the Chair of Ethics Committee of the Department of Psychology: Dr Nadja Reissland (n.n.reissland@durham.ac.uk).

Thank you again for your participation

Appendix C

Experiment 8 Materials

Research: A study of mental simulation
Participant information and consent form

You are invited to take part in a study that I am conducting as part of a research project at Durham University. This study has received ethical approval from the department of Psychology, Ethics Committee of Durham University.
Before you decide whether to agree to take part it is important for you to understand the purpose of the research and what is involved as a participant. Please read the following information carefully. Please get in contact if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information.
This study is being conducted by Kristina Habjan, a PhD student at Durham University. It aims to investigate the effects of mental simulation on people in an organizational context.

This study is composed of two parts. In the first one we ask you to do an imagery task, where we will ask you to imagine you are a student at a fictitious university; and a second part where we ask you to complete a questionnaire regarding the imagery task. The questionnaire should not take more than 10 minutes to complete.

You are not obliged to participate in this research and are free to refuse to participate. You may also withdraw from the study at any point without giving any reason.

If you do agree to participate in the study, all responses and questionnaires will be treated confidentially. Your name and identifying information will be kept securely and separately from the rest of your questionnaire. Data will be stored for a maximum of five years after the study. Once the data is analysed, a report of the findings may be submitted for publication.

You will get £1 for your participation at the end of the study.

To signify your voluntary participation please complete the consent form below.
Please select the boxes to confirm that you agree to each statement.

- ✓ I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for this study and have had the opportunity to ask any questions

- ✓ I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw from the study at any time without explanation

- ✓ I agree to take part in this study

  If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of this study, please inform the Chair of the Psychology Research Ethics Committee (via the Psychology Departmental Office) in writing, providing a detailed account of your concern.

Condition 1: alone
Please read the following extract closely:

We would like you to imagine that you are a student at Lorwich University.

Lorwich University is a distinctive, leading academic centre that has been established for over 150 years. Lorwich University has developed a national reputation for its innovative, modern and research-oriented community. This university has a strong commitment to offer original and fulfilling experience to all of its students to develop their skills and pursue their passion. As such, Lorwich University is interested in getting valuable feedback from its students.

This year the Head of the Department would like to discuss the student experience with some of the students at Lorwich University.

Now, imagine yourself meeting the Head of the Department on your own to give your feedback on students' experience at Lorwich University. Try to discuss any issues and provide future suggestions. Imagine the interaction is relaxed, positive and comfortable.

Condition 2: group

Please read the following extract closely:

We would like you to imagine that you are a student at Lorwich University.

Lorwich University is a distinctive, leading academic centre that has been established for over 150 years. Lorwich University has developed a national reputation for its innovative, modern and research-oriented community. This university has a strong commitment to offer original and fulfilling experience to all of its students to develop their skills and pursue their passion. As such, Lorwich University is interested in getting valuable feedback from its students.

This year the Head of the Department would like to discuss the student experience with some of the students at Lorwich University.

Now, imagine yourself amongst a group of other students at Lorwich University meeting the Head of the Department to give your feedback on students' experience at Lorwich University. Try to discuss any issues and provide future suggestions. Imagine the interaction is relaxed, positive and comfortable.

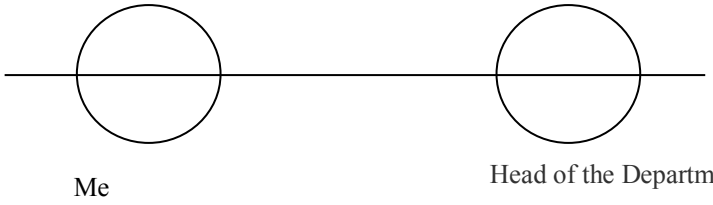
Write several lines on what you have imagined:

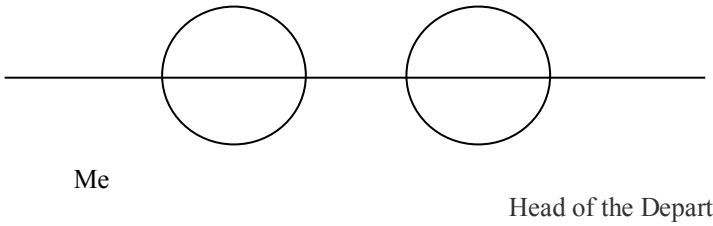
LEADER TRUST (Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008)
1 = Strongly disagree, 9 = Strongly agree;

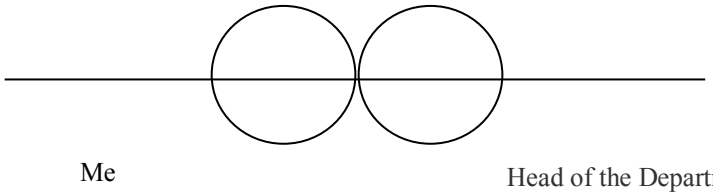
Thinking about what have you just imagined, indicate your agreement on the following scale.

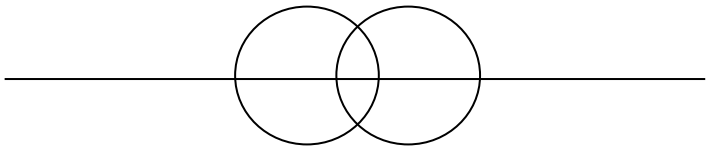
(a) I trust this leader/The Head of the department absolutely;
(b) I think this leader/the HOD does the right things;
(c) I think this leader/ the HOD is trustworthy;
(d) this leader/ the HOD is very committed to the organization/ Lorwich University;
(e) this leader/the HOD wants the best for the organization/ Lorwich University;
(f) this leader/the HOD aims to gain benefits for all of the organization/ Lorwich Uni;

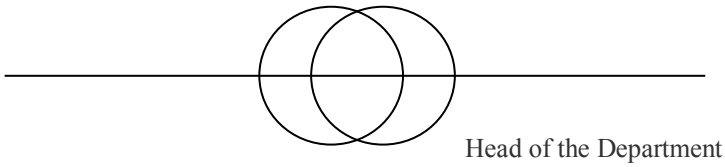
Insert in the box below which of the following figures best represent the relationship between you and Head of the Department.

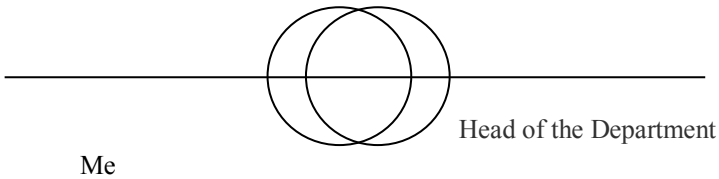


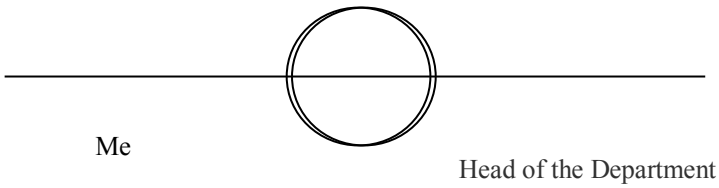




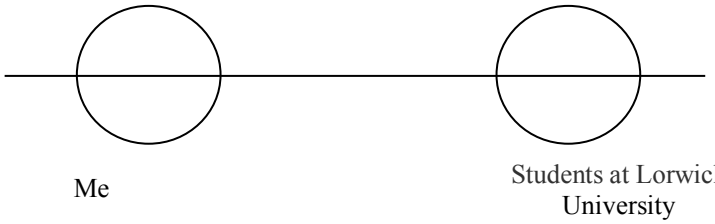


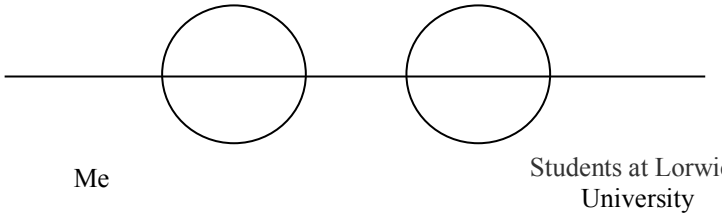


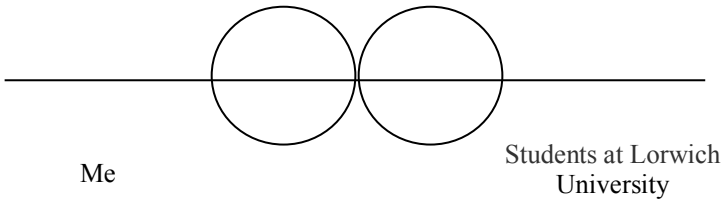


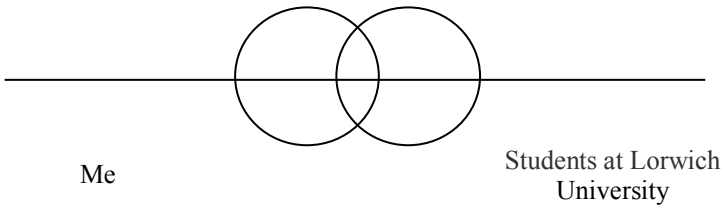


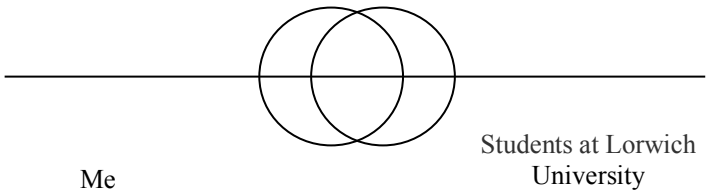
Inclusion of the other in self (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000).
Insert in the box below which of the following figures best represent the relationship between you and students at Lorwich University.

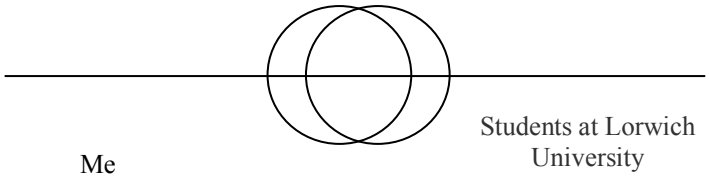


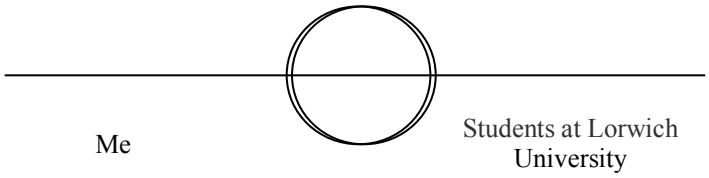




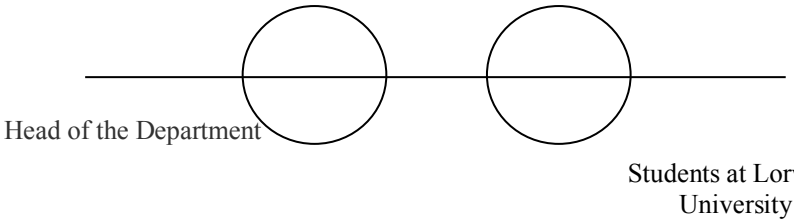


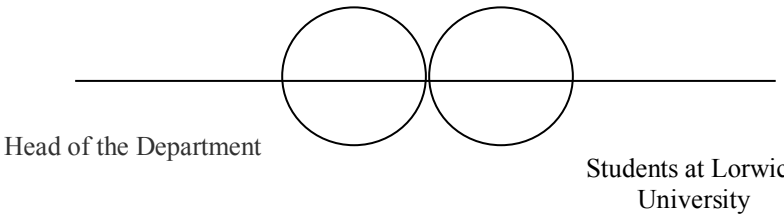


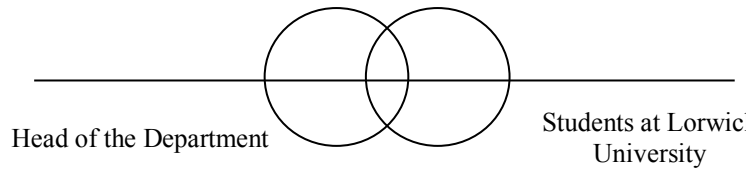


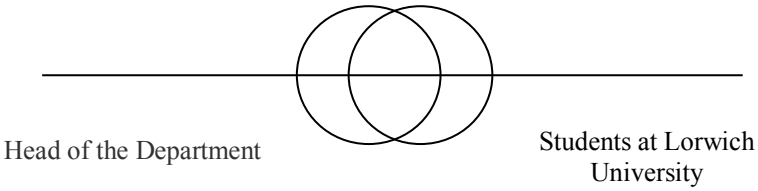


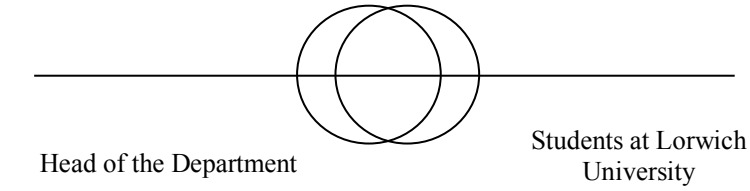
Insert in the box below which of the following figures best represent the relationship between you and Lorwich University.

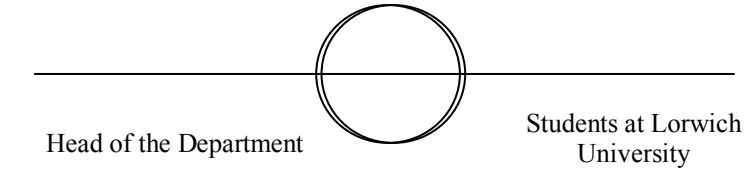












ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION (Randsley de Moura et al. 2009):

Thinking about the extract you have just read indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

Strongly agree Somewhat agree Neither agree or disagree Somewhat disagree Strongly disagree
1 2 3 4 5

1. I feel strong ties with Lorwich University
2. Lorwich University is important to me
3. I feel proud to be a member of Lorwich University
4. I feel a strong sense of belonging to Lorwich University
5. Belonging to Lorwich University is an important part of my self-image
6. I often regret that I belong to Lorwich University (reverse code)
7. I`m glad to be a member of Lorwich University

We would be grateful if you would complete a few final questions about this study.

What do you think this study was about?

Were you suspicious at any point that the study was looking at something other than what was stated?

- Not at all
- A little
- A lot

Was there anything about this study that you found difficult or confusing?

Please could you tell us a couple more information about you:

Female
Male

Ethnicity:

- White
- Black or African American
- American indian or Alaska Native
- Asian
- Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- Other

Nationality:

Age:

Study Debriefing

Thank you for participating in this experiment. This study is part of an investigation into how mental imagery with a leader can increase organizational identification.
It was necessary to withhold this information from you prior to completing the experiment as advanced knowledge of the complete aims of the study could have impacted your performance on the task and questionnaire.
In the experiment, we provided information across different conditions that presented two different experiences. We are interested in whether imagining to encounter the leader (Head of the Department), alone or in group, can influence the sense of organizational identification with the organization in question.

If you would like further information about the study or would like to know about what my findings are when all the data have been collected and analyzed, then please contact me on (kristina.habjan@durham.ac.uk). I cannot however provide you with your individual results.

Thank you again for your participation.

Experiment 9 Materials

Research: A study of mental imagery
Participant information and consent form

Please take a few minutes to read the following information on this research carefully before you agree to participate. If at any time you have a question regarding the study, please feel free to ask the researcher who will provide more information.
This study is being conducted by Kristina Habjan, a PhD student at Durham University.
It aims to investigate the effects of mental imagery.
This study is composed of two parts. In the first one we ask you to do an imagery task, where we will ask you to imagine that you are meeting the manager director of your company; and a second part where we ask you to complete a questionnaire regarding the imagery task. The questionnaire should not take more than 10minutes to complete.

You are not obliged to participate in this research and are free to refuse to participate. You may also withdraw from the study at any point without giving any reason.
If you do agree to participate in the study, all responses and questionnaires will be treated confidentially. Your name and identifying information will be kept securely and separately from the rest of your questionnaire. Data will be stored for a maximum of five years after the study. Once the data is analyzed, a report of the findings may be submitted for publication.

To signify your voluntary participation please complete the consent form below.
Please select the boxes to confirm that you agree to each statement.

- ✓ I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for this study and have had the opportunity to ask any questions

- ✓ I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw from the study at any time without explanation

- ✓ I agree to take part in this study

If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of this study, please inform the Chair of the Psychology Research Ethics Committee (via the Psychology Departmental Office) in writing, providing a detailed account of your concern.

Please read the following extract closely:
Condition 1: alone
We would like you to imagine the following scenario:
Imagine **yourself** meeting the Managing Director of your Company on your own. Imagine the interaction is relaxed, positive and comfortable.

Condition 2= group
We would like you to imagine the following scenario:
Imagine yourself amongst a group of other employees meeting the Managing Director of your Company. Imagine the interaction is relaxed, positive and comfortable.

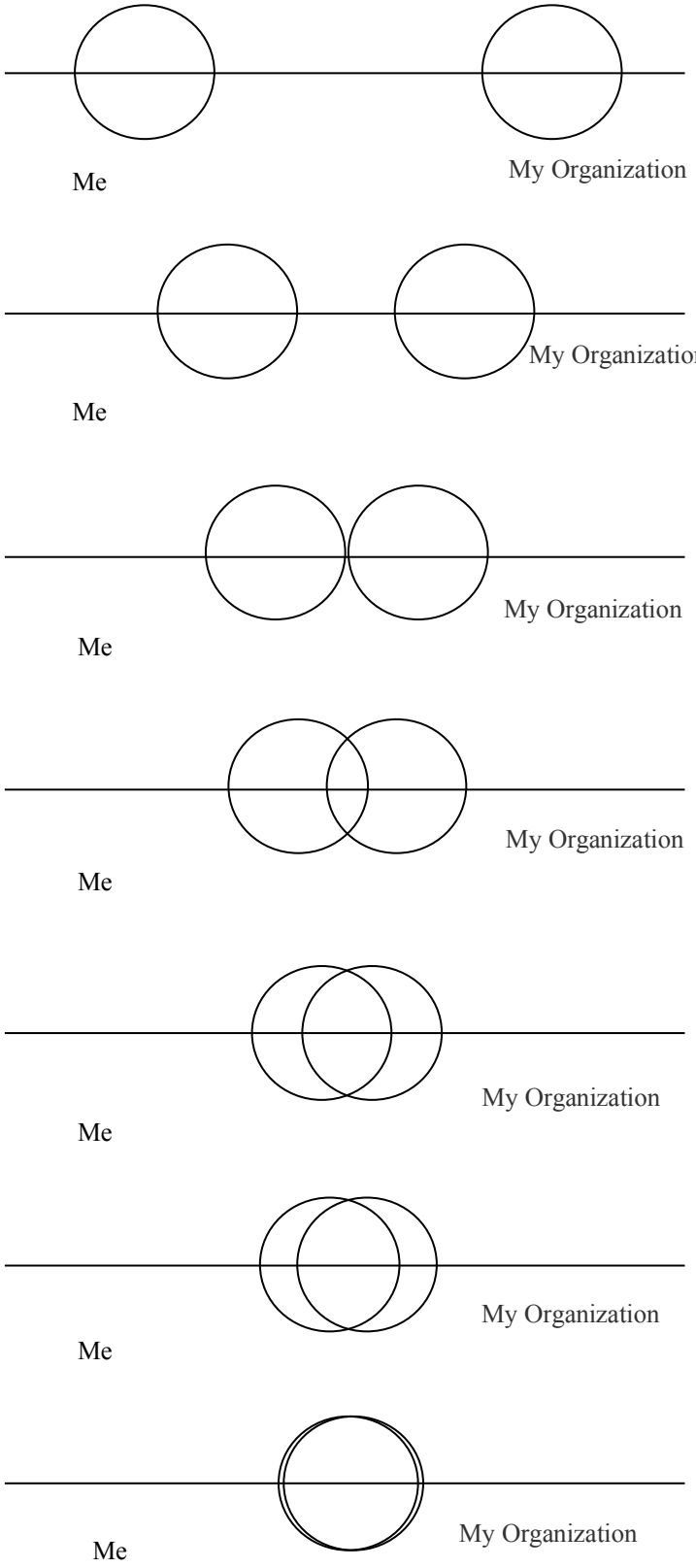
Write several lines on what have you imagined:

LEADER TRUST
(Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008)

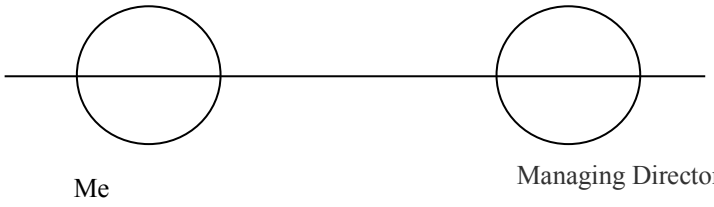
Thinking about what have you just imagined, indicate your agreement on the following scale.

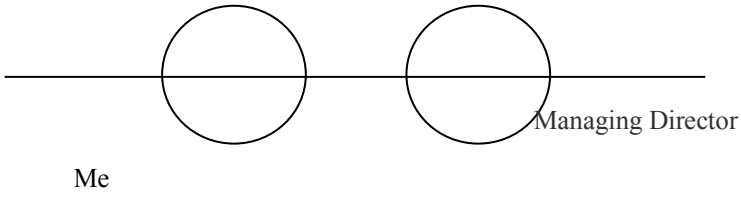
(a) I trust the Managing Director absolutely;
(b) I think the Managing Director does the right things;
(c) I think the Managing Director is trustworthy;
(d) The Managing Director is very committed to the organization;
(e) Managing Director wants the best for the organization;
(f) Managing Director aims to gain benefits for all of the organization;
1 = Strongly disagree, 9 = Strongly agree;

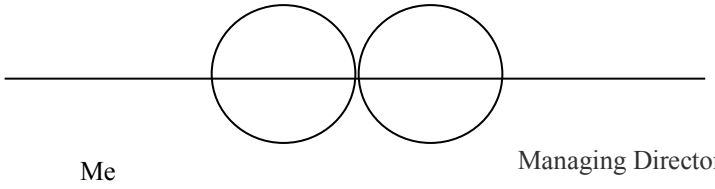
Inclusion of the other in self (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000).
Insert in the box below which of the following figures best represent the relationship between you and your Organization.

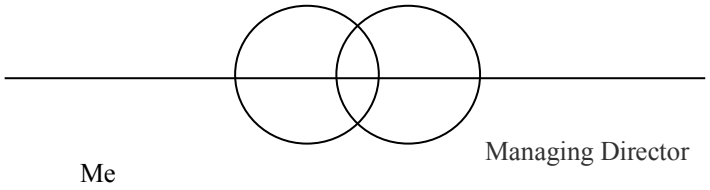


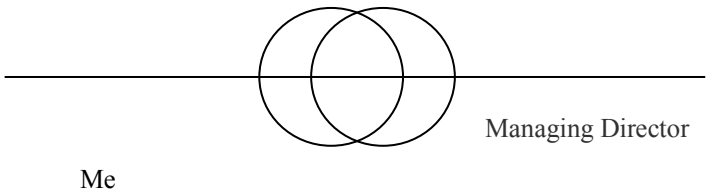
Insert in the box below which of the following figures best represent the relationship between you and the Managing Director.

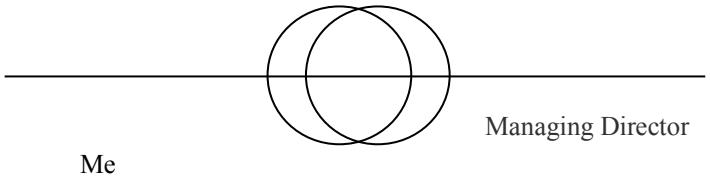


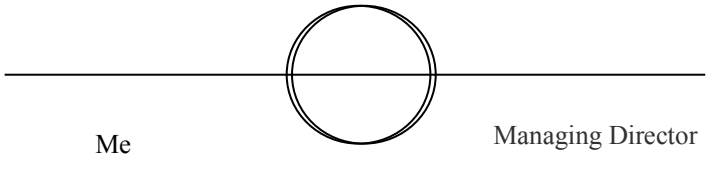




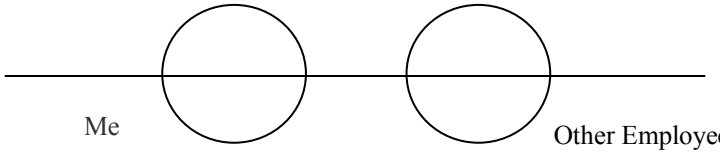


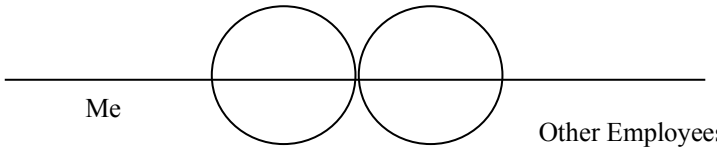


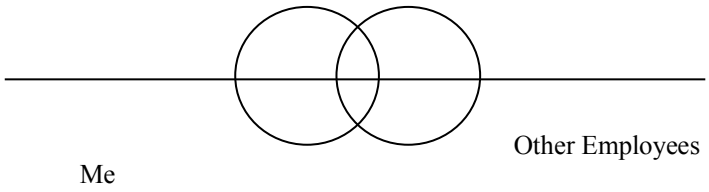


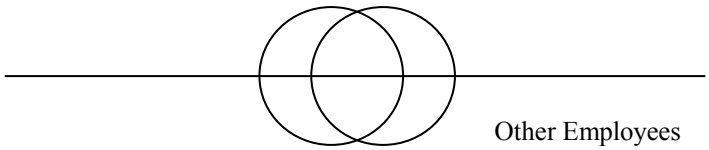


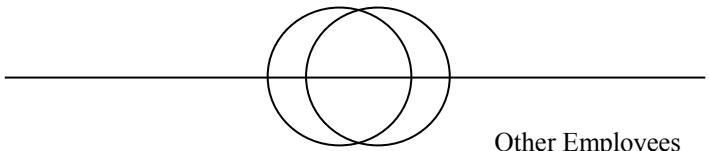
Insert in the box below which of the following figures best represent the relationship between you and Other Employees at your Organization.

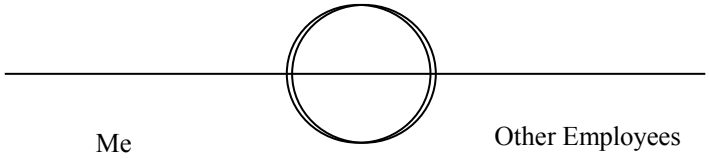




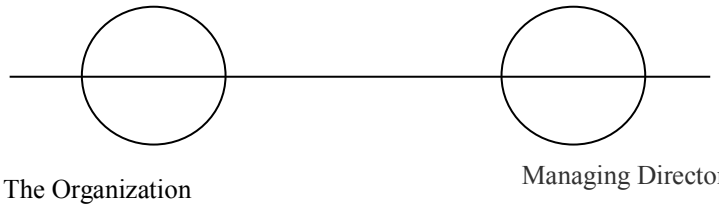


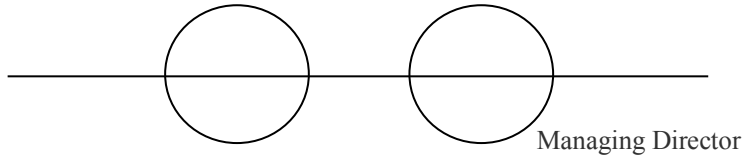


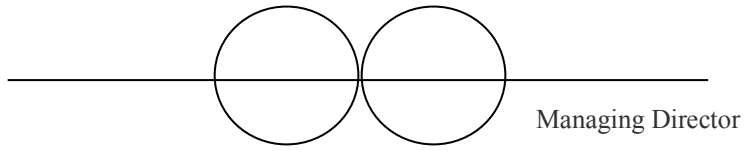


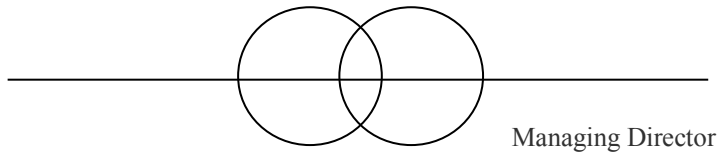


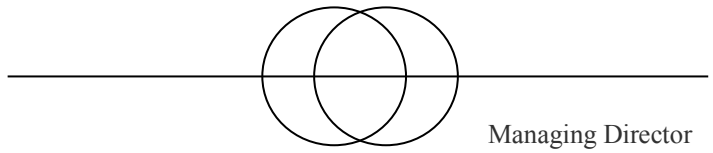
Insert in the box below which of the following figures best represent the relationship between the Managing Director and Your Organization.

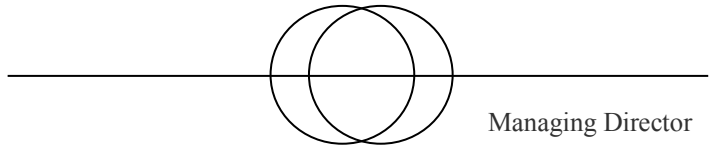


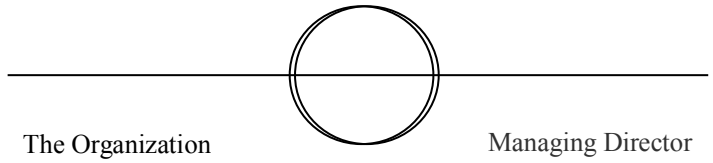












ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION Mael & Ashforth (1992) / Blader & Tyler (2009)
Likert scale 1-5 (strongly disagree-agree)

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5. I think I am similar to the people who work at my company.

TURNOVER INTENTION SCALE (Roodt, 2004)

How often have you considered leaving your job at Flash Media?

Never 1-2-3-4-5 always

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How likely are you to accept another job then Flash Media, at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?

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How often do you look forward to another day at Flash Media?

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Have you ever met the Managing Director of your Organization that you actually imagined?
Yes
No

What do you think this study was about?

Were you suspicious at any point that the study was looking at something other than what was stated?

- Not at all
- A little
- A lot

Was there anything about this study that you found difficult or confusing?

Please could you tell us a couple more information about you:

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Ethnicity:

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Study Debriefing

Thank you for participating in this experiment. This study is part of an investigation into how mental imagery with a leader can increase organizational identification.
It was necessary to withhold this information from you prior to completing the experiment as advanced knowledge of the complete aims of the study could have impacted your performance on the task and questionnaire.
In the experiment, we provided information across different conditions that presented two different experiences. We are interested in whether imagining to encounter the leader (Managing Director), alone or in group, can influence the sense of organizational identification with the organization in question.

If you would like further information about the study or would like to know about what my findings are when all the data have been collected and analyzed, then please contact me on (kristina.habjan@durham.ac.uk). I cannot however provide you with your individual results.

Thank you again for your participation.

Experiment 10 Materials

Research: A study of mental imagery
Participant information and consent form

Please take a few minutes to read the following information on this research carefully before you agree to participate. If at any time you have a question regarding the study, please feel free to ask the researcher who will provide more information.
This study is being conducted by Kristina Habjan, a PhD student at Durham University.
It aims to investigate the effects of mental imagery.
This study is composed of two parts. In the first one we ask you to do an imagery task, where we will ask you to imagine that you are meeting the manager director of your company; and a second part where we ask you to complete a questionnaire regarding the imagery task. The questionnaire should not take more than 10minutes to complete.

You are not obliged to participate in this research and are free to refuse to participate. You may also withdraw from the study at any point without giving any reason.
If you do agree to participate in the study, all responses and questionnaires will be treated confidentially. Your name and identifying information will be kept securely and separately from the rest of your questionnaire. Data will be stored for a maximum of five years after the study. Once the data is analyzed, a report of the findings may be submitted for publication.

To signify your voluntary participation please complete the consent form below.
Please select the boxes to confirm that you agree to each statement.

- ✓ I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for this study and have had the opportunity to ask any questions

- ✓ I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw from the study at any time without explanation

- ✓ I agree to take part in this study

If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of this study, please inform the Chair of the Psychology Research Ethics Committee (via the Psychology Departmental Office) in writing, providing a detailed account of your concern.

Please read the following extract closely:
Condition 1: alone
We would like you to imagine the following scenario:
Imagine **yourself** meeting the Managing Director of your Company on your own. Imagine the interaction is relaxed, positive and comfortable.

Condition 2= group
We would like you to imagine the following scenario:
Imagine yourself amongst a group of other employees meeting the Managing Director of your Company. Imagine the interaction is relaxed, positive and comfortable.

VIVIDNESS Dean and Morris (2003), (adapted from Argyriou, 2011)

1. I found what I have imagined vivid.
2. I have a concrete picture of what I have imagined in my mind.
3. I have a clear and sharp image of what I have imagined in my mind.
4. It is easy for me to evoke what I have imagined right now.

Write several lines on what have you imagined:

LEADER TRUST
(Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008)

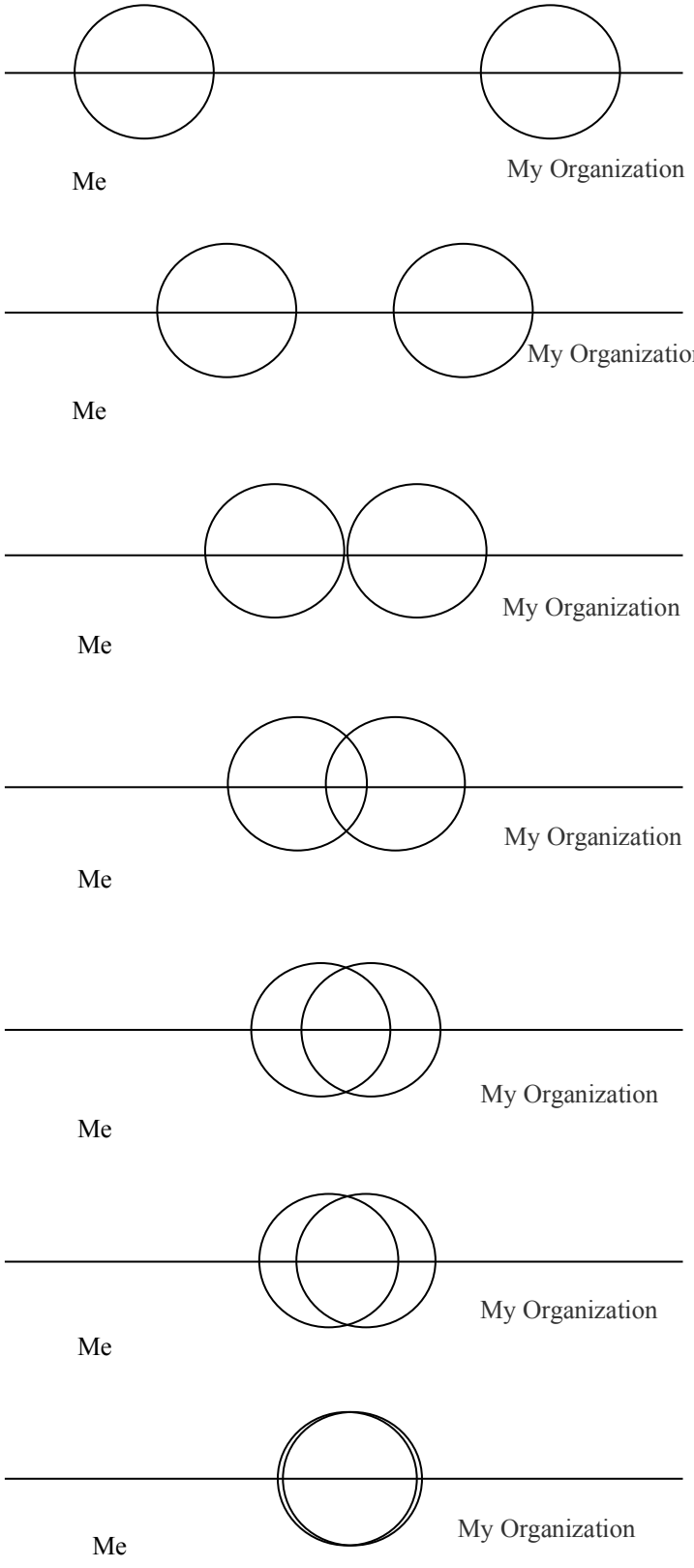
Thinking about what have you just imagined, indicate your agreement on the following scale.

(a) I trust the Managing Director absolutely;
(b) I think the Managing Director does the right things;
(c) I think the Managing Director is trustworthy;
(d) The Managing Director is very committed to the organization;
(e) Managing Director wants the best for the organization;
(f) Managing Director aims to gain benefits for all of the organization;
1 = Strongly disagree, 9 = Strongly agree;

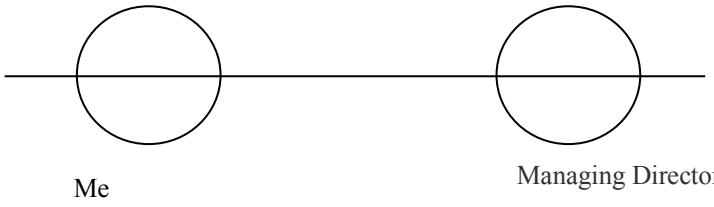
Interactional justice (Colquitt, 2001)
Thinking about what have you just imagined, indicate your agreement on the following scale.
1=to very little extent, 2= to a small extent, 3= to some extent, 4= to a great extent, 5= to a very great extent

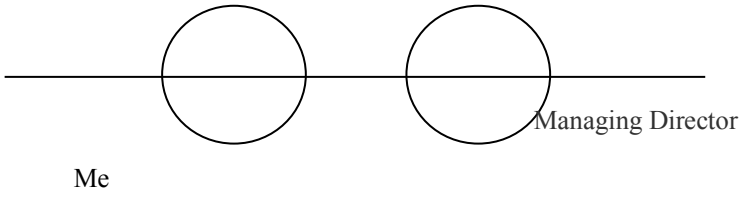
1. My Managing Director treats me in a polite manner.
2. My Managing Director treats me with dignity.
3. My Managing Director treats me with respect.
4. My Managing Director refrains from improper remarks or comments.

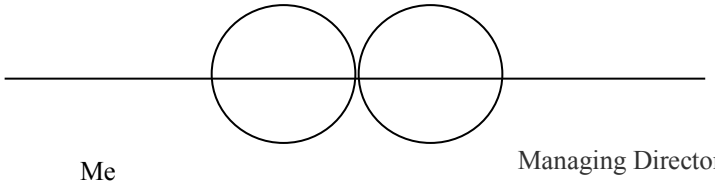
Inclusion of the other in self (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000).
Insert in the box below which of the following figures best represent the relationship between you and your Organization.

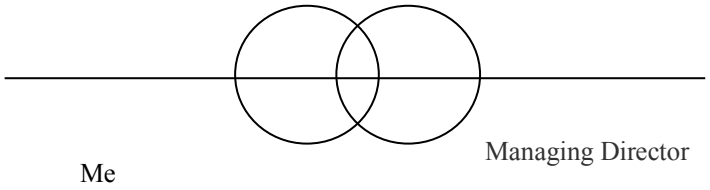


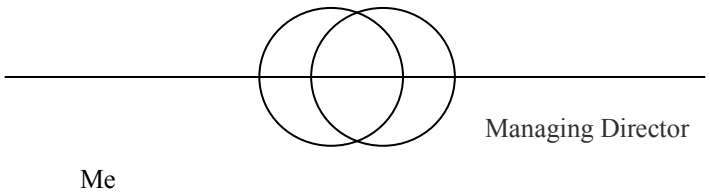
Insert in the box below which of the following figures best represent the relationship between you and the Managing Director.

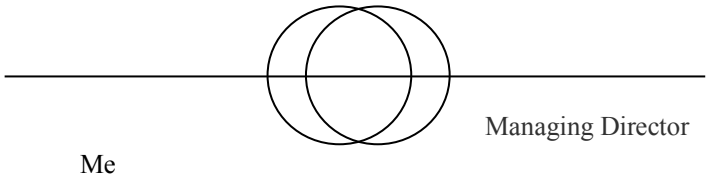


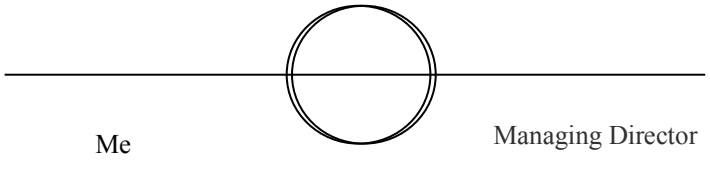




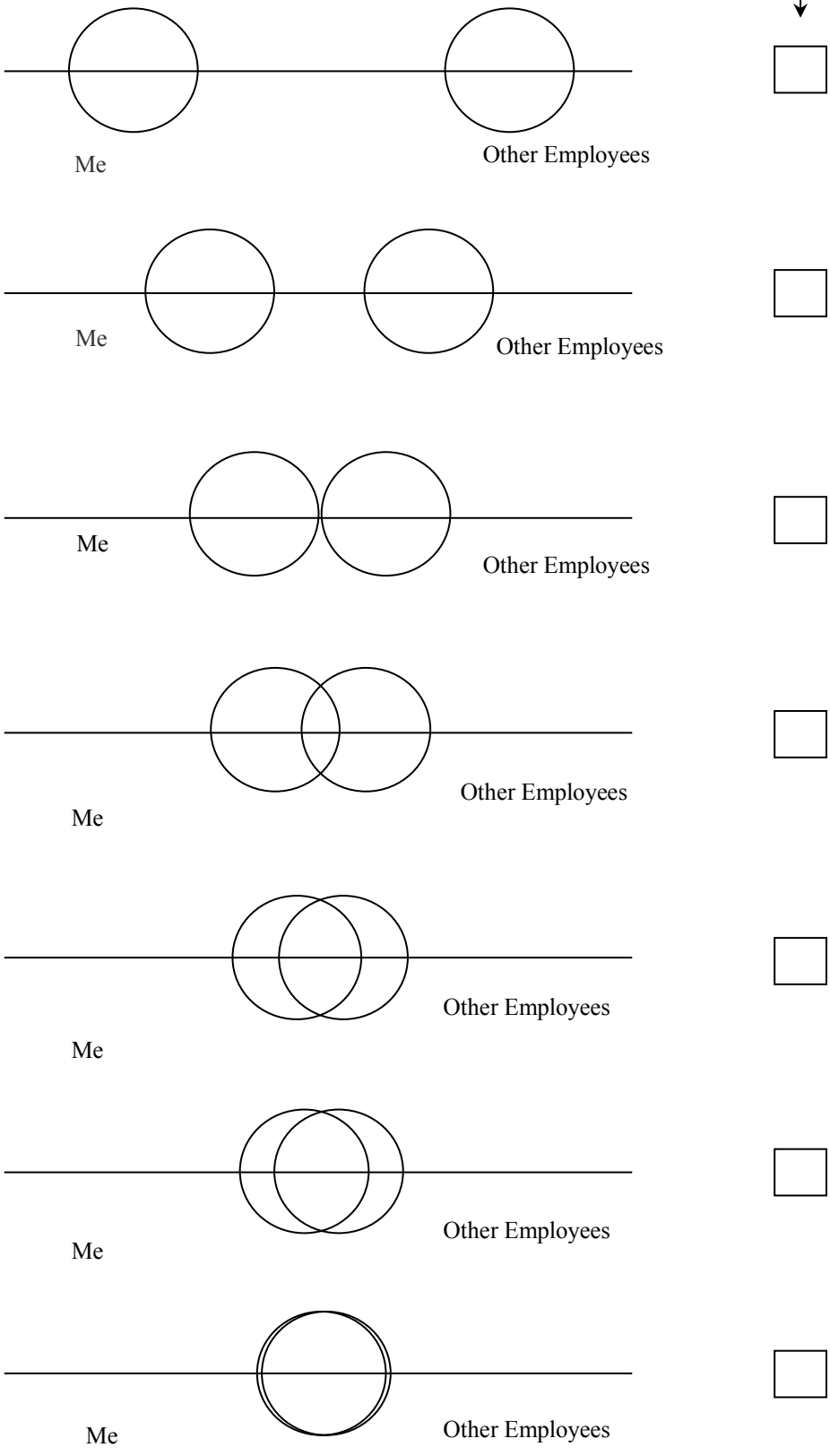




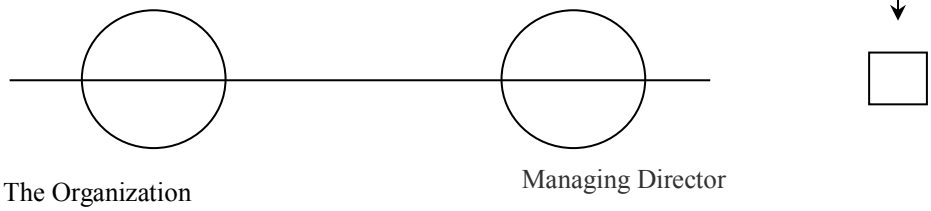


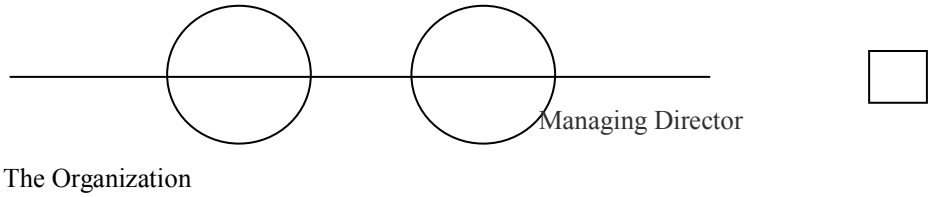


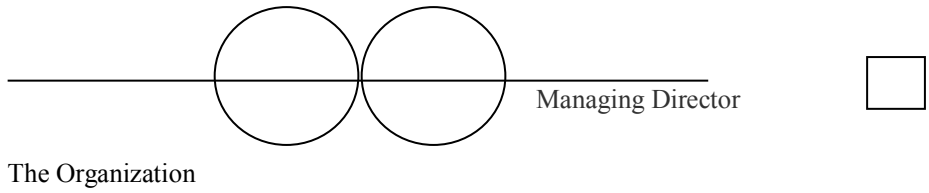
Insert in the box below which of the following figures best represent the relationship between you and Other Employees at your Organization.

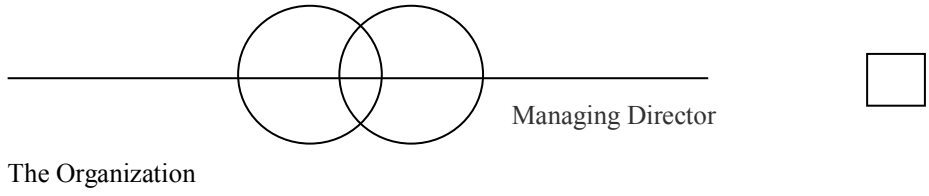


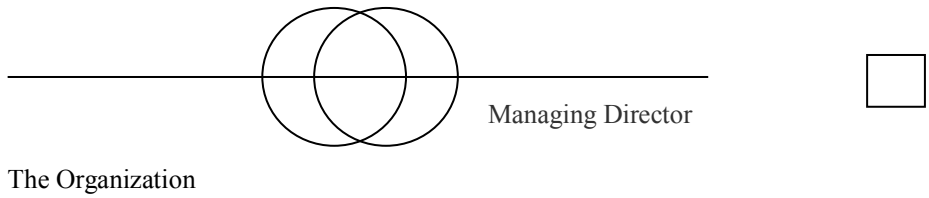
Insert in the box below which of the following figures best represent the relationship between the Managing Director and Your Organization.

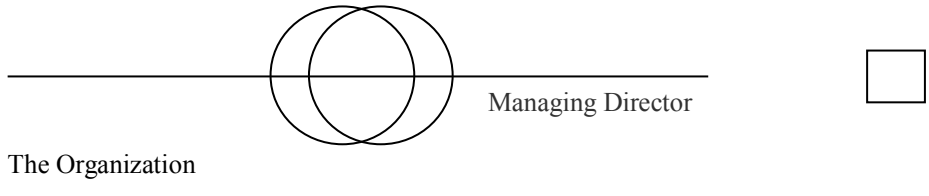


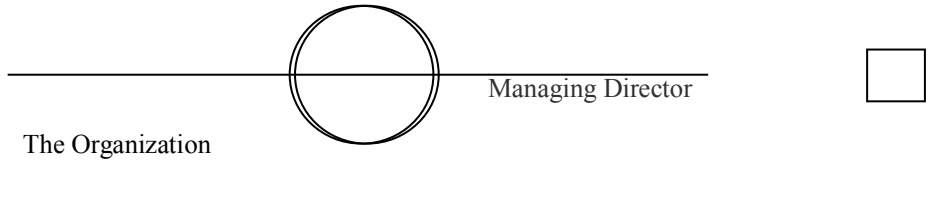












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